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LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

MASSACHUSETTS

No. 45

JANUARY, 1907.

CONTAINING:

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| Income and Inheritance Taxes. | The President on Labor Matters. |
| Child Labor and the Census. | Trade Union Notes. |
| Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts
in 1850 and 1905. | Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor. |
| Railroad Pensions in the United States
and Canada. | Industrial Agreements. |
| Convict Labor in Massachusetts. | Current Comment—Old-age Pensions.
Excerpts. |
| | Statistical Abstracts. |
| Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906. | |

PUBLISHED BY THE
BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

CHAS. F. PIDGIN, *Chief.*
FRANK H. DROWN, *First Clerk.* WM. G. GRUNDY, *Second Clerk.*



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COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.
BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.
ROOMS 250-258, STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

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Associate Editors: FRANK H. DROWN, ROSWELL F. PHELPS, FRANK S. DROWN.

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A Progressive Income Tax.

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BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

ROOMS 250-258, STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

CHAS. F. PIDGIN, CHIEF.

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*With the
Compliments of the Chief.*

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It is well known that great sums of money are made not from actual labor or from buying or selling or from the manufacture of commodities, but rather from what is known as "the unearned increment."

The following quotation, in substance, is taken from a Western newspaper:

In New York City the authorities, in preparing to clear away space for the new Brooklyn Bridge terminals, have decided to buy the property of a New York newspaper, which, in 1873, cost \$800,000, but for which the city will now pay \$2,000,000. What a profit! Who made such an increase in value? Not the newspaper; it was the increase in population of the city of New York. Why should not the people of New York have the benefit of the value created

by them? There is no answer but that they should have it all, and they should get it by taxation of the ground value into the city treasury.

We give another instance supplied by the same newspaper:

A native of Massachusetts, while a resident of Indiana in 1894, came into possession of 50 acres of land on which he had taken a mortgage of \$250. When the farmer who owned the land died, he left considerable life insurance to his widow. The mortgagor went to the widow and asked if she wished to buy back the land, but she refused. Deciding that he had an elephant on his hands, the mortgagor gave up the idea of selling and year after year paid the taxes. Not until a short time ago did he learn the value of his property upon which oil and gas had been found. He sold the land to the Standard Oil Company for \$250,000. The mortgagor is a machinist, but is he rightfully entitled to any such increment as the difference between \$250 and one thousand times that sum when he never put any labor on the land? Clearly not, but why should not the Standard Oil Company pay taxes on the full value of the land and oil when the oil wealth in the land was not in any way created by the company? The oil deposit was not put there by any man. It exists by no virtue of man's power. It rightfully belongs to nobody, but unto all the people—to whom the whole country belongs. It is natural wealth, and the Standard Oil Company is justly entitled to no more than pay for such service as it may perform in taking this natural wealth and handling it to the advantage of and in the service of the public. . . . If the Government were to exact for the public treasury the full value of all such lands, no such lands could be monopolized and kept unproductive in order to keep up the price of oil. Such land would be too expensive thus to hold, and it would be open to any one desiring to produce oil. There could be no oil monopoly, no coal monopoly, no steel monopoly, no railroad monopoly, no land monopoly, if all land were taxed to its full value, if no individual or corporation could appropriate to himself or itself the value inhering in the land by the nearness to it of the people or by the needs of those people. The natural wealth of the land belongs to the country. The country is the people. No one is entitled to any wealth that he does not naturally create.

There is an old saying that "history repeats itself," and the truth of this saying is certainly exemplified as regards the question of a progressive income tax. In 1785, or nearly a century and a quarter ago, the question was widely discussed. The custom in England of conveying the bulk of an estate to the eldest son, in accordance with the law of what is known as primogeniture, undoubtedly gave rise to the discussion. The argument of those who attacked the system was that the large incomes should be split up and divided among the younger sons.

It has been deemed pertinent to the consideration of the question at the present time to quote from the arguments used in 1785, with this difference, that pounds sterling have been represented by their equivalent in dollars. In the consideration of the question of a progressive income tax, the problem is to fix a point at which the possession of the money is rendered unprofitable on account of the size of the tax. In other words, up to a certain sum the tax is so graduated that it can be paid without

cutting too largely into the gross income; beyond that point, however, it is estimated that the tax increases so fast that at another point it approaches almost to the magnitude of the income itself.

The old-time writer in his consideration of the question used the following argument:

When taxes are proposed the country is amused by the plausible need of taxing luxuries. One thing is called a luxury at one time and something else at another; but the real luxury does not consist in the article but in the means of procuring it, and this is always kept out of sight.

I know of no reason why any plant or herb of the field should be a greater luxury in one country than in another, but an overgrown estate in either is a luxury at all times and, as such, is a proper object of taxation. It is right, therefore, to take these kind tax-making gentlemen upon their own word and argue on the principle they have laid down — that of *taxing luxuries*. If they or their champions can prove that an estate of \$100,000, \$150,000, or \$200,000 a year is not a luxury I will give up the argument.

Admitting that any annual sum, say, for instance, \$5,000, is necessary or sufficient for the support of a family, consequently the second \$5,000 is of the nature of a luxury, the third still more so, and by proceeding on we shall at last arrive at a sum that may in all propriety be called a *prohibitable luxury*. It would be impolitic to set bounds to property acquired by industry, and, therefore, it is right to place the prohibition beyond probable accumulation by industry, but there ought to be a limit to property or the accumulation of it by bequests. It should pass in some other line: the richest in every nation have poor relations, and those, very often, near in consanguinity.

In support of his argument, the writer presented three tables, which follow:

Table I.

INCOME.		Rate per M.	INCOME.		Rate per M.
1st \$2,500	\$5,000,	\$12	\$60,000,		\$432
2d 2,500	24	65,000,		480
10,000,		36	70,000,		528
15,000,		48	75,000,		576
20,000,		72	80,000,		624
25,000,		96	85,000,		672
30,000,		144	90,000,		720
35,000,		192	95,000,		768
40,000,		240	100,000,		816
45,000,		288	105,000,		864
50,000,		336	110,000,		912
55,000,		384	115,000,		960

Table I classifies the incomes from \$2,500 to \$115,000, or the incomes at five per cent on sums from \$50,000 to \$2,300,000. The second column shows the rate per thousand, which the writer fixed at \$12 a thousand dollars on the first \$2,500, or \$30 on an income of \$2,500. On the second \$2,500 he raised the tax to \$24 per thousand dollars, which would be \$60 on the second \$2,500, or \$90 on the first \$5,000, or at the rate of \$18 per thousand. By progression, the rate per thousand dollars on an income of \$10,000 is \$36, or \$360; on an income of \$15,000, the tax is \$48 per thousand dollars, and so on by progressive steps until,

when an income of \$115,000 is reached, the tax per thousand dollars is \$960, leaving the recipient of the income a margin of only \$40 on each thousand of income beyond \$115,000.

Table II.

INCOME.	Rate per M.	Progressive Tax	Total Tax	INCOME.	Rate per M.	Progressive Tax	Total Tax
1st \$2,500 } \$5,000 {	\$12	\$30 }	\$90	\$60,000, . . .	\$432	\$2,160	\$11,430
2d 2,500 . . .	24	60 }		65,000, . . .	480	2,400	13,830
10,000, . . .	36	180	270	70,000, . . .	528	2,640	16,470 ;
15,000, . . .	48	240	510	75,000, . . .	576	2,880	19,350
20,000, . . .	72	360	870	80,000, . . .	624	3,120	22,470
25,000, . . .	96	480	1,350	85,000, . . .	672	3,360	25,830
30,000, . . .	144	720	2,070	90,000, . . .	720	3,600	29,430
35,000, . . .	192	960	3,030	95,000, . . .	768	3,840	33,270 ;
40,000, . . .	240	1,200	4,230	100,000, . . .	816	4,080	37,350
45,000, . . .	288	1,440	5,670	105,000, . . .	864	4,320	41,670
50,000, . . .	336	1,680	7,350	110,000, . . .	912	4,560	46,230
55,000, . . .	384	1,920	9,270	115,000, . . .	960	4,800	51,030

In this table the classified income is given in the first column; in the second column, the rate per thousand dollars; in the third column, the progressive tax for each advance of \$5,000; and, in the fourth column, the total tax.

The proper method of reading the table is as follows: On the first \$5,000, the progressive tax and the total tax amount to \$90. On the \$5,000 from \$5,000 to \$10,000, the rate becomes \$36 per thousand, or a total of \$180, as shown in the column headed "progressive tax." This, added to the \$90 previously given, makes a total tax of \$270, as is shown in the column headed "total tax." We next take an income of \$15,000. The tax on incomes between \$10,000 and \$15,000 is \$48 per thousand, or \$240. This amount is shown in the column headed "progressive tax." In the column headed "total tax," this \$240 is added to the \$270, making a total of \$510. The table then advances by sums of \$5,000 until we reach the highest income considered, or \$115,000. On the last \$5,000, that is, from \$110,000 to \$115,000, the tax is \$960 per thousand; this makes the progressive tax \$4,800, which, added to the total tax on \$110,000, or \$46,230, makes a total of \$51,030.

Table III.

INCOME.	Total Tax to be Subtracted	Net Produce	INCOME.	Total Tax to be Subtracted	Net Produce
\$5,000, . . .	\$90	\$4,910	\$65,000, . . .	\$13,830	\$51,170
10,000, . . .	270	9,730	70,000, . . .	16,470	53,530
15,000, . . .	510	14,490	75,000, . . .	19,350	55,650
20,000, . . .	870	19,130	80,000, . . .	22,470	57,530
25,000, . . .	1,350	23,650	85,000, . . .	25,830	59,170
30,000, . . .	2,070	27,930	90,000, . . .	29,430	60,570
35,000, . . .	3,030	31,970	95,000, . . .	33,270	61,730
40,000, . . .	4,230	35,770	100,000, . . .	37,350	62,650
45,000, . . .	5,670	39,330	105,000, . . .	41,670	63,330
50,000, . . .	7,350	42,650	110,000, . . .	46,230	63,770
55,000, . . .	9,270	45,730	115,000, . . .	51,030	63,970
60,000, . . .	11,430	48,570			

In Table III is given, in the first column, the classified income; in the second column, the total tax to be subtracted; and, in the third column, the net produce. With an income of \$5,000, the tax would be \$90 and the net produce \$4,910; with an income of \$30,000, the total tax would be \$2,070, with a net produce of \$27,930; with an income of \$55,000, the total tax would be \$9,270, with a net produce of \$45,730; with an income of \$115,000, the total tax would be \$51,030, leaving a net produce of \$63,970.

The framer of the tables proceeded to analyze them as follows:—

When the income reaches \$115,000 annually, the tax becomes dollar for dollar and, consequently, every thousand beyond that sum can produce no profit but by dividing the estate. On small and middling estates the tax is light; it is not until the income reaches \$35,000 to \$40,000 a year that it begins to be heavy. The object is not so much the product of the tax as justice in the measure. The moneyed aristocracy has screened itself too much, and this serves to restore a part of the lost equilibrium.

The chief object of this progressive tax (besides the justice of rendering taxes more equal than they are) is, as already stated, to expiate overgrown influences arising from the unnatural custom of leaving money in trust.

It would be attended with no good consequences to inquire how such vast estates as \$150,000, or \$200,000, or \$250,000 a year could commence. Let it be sufficient to remedy the evil by putting them in a condition of descending again to the community by the quiet means of apportioning them among the heirs and heiresses of these families.

The progressive tax will in a great measure effect this object, and that is a matter of interest to the parties most immediately concerned, as will be seen by the table which shows net products upon every estate after subtracting the tax. By this it appears that after an estate exceeds \$65,000 or \$70,000 a year, the remainder produces but little profit to the holder and, consequently, will either pass to the younger children or to other kindred.

The writer did not confine himself to the question of large incomes, but took up the related question of workingmen's wages.

Several laws are in existence for regulating and limiting workingmen's wages. Why not leave them as free to make their own bargains as the law makers are to let their farms and houses? Personal labor is all the property they have. Why is that little and the little freedom they enjoy to be infringed? But the justice will appear stronger if we consider the propriety and effect of such laws. When wages are fixed by what is called a law, the legal wages remain stationary while everything else is in progression, and as those who make that law still continue to lay on new taxes by other laws, they increase the expense of living by one law and take away the means by another.

But if these gentlemen law-makers and tax-makers thought it right to limit the poor pittance which personal labor can produce and on which a whole family is to be supported, they certainly must feel themselves badly handicapped in a limitation on their own part of not less than \$60,000 a year and that on property that perhaps they never acquired nor perhaps any of their ancestors.

The preceding tables are not presented as a model for adoption by American legislators in framing a progressive income tax. They are only given to show the plan upon which such a tax has been framed and suggested in the past, and could serve in that respect, at least, as a model for framing one which will undoubtedly not be as drastic in its provisions. Referring to this point, President Roosevelt said in his Message:

"Whenever we, as a people, undertake to remodel our taxation system along the lines suggested, we must make it clear beyond peradventure that our aim is to distribute the burden of supporting the Government more equitably than at present; that we intend to treat rich man and poor man on a basis of absolute equality, and that we regard it as equally fatal to true democracy to do or permit injustice to the one as to do or permit injustice to the other."

A Graduated Inheritance Tax.

President Roosevelt also considered the question of a graduated inheritance tax in his Message. He said:

"I feel that in the near future our national legislators should enact a law providing for a graduated inheritance tax by which a steadily increasing rate of duty should be put upon all moneys or other valuables coming by gift, bequest, or devise to any individual or corporation. It may be well to make the tax heavy in proportion as the individual benefited is remote of kin. In any event, in my judgment the *pro rata* of the tax should increase very heavily with the increase of the amount left to any one individual after a certain point has been reached. It is most desirable to encourage thrift and ambition, and a potent source of thrift and ambition is the desire on the part of the breadwinner to leave his children well off. This object can be attained by making the tax very small on moderate amounts of property left: because the prime object should be to put a constantly increasing burden on the inheritance of those swollen fortunes which it is certainly of no benefit to this country to perpetuate. . . . It is wise that progress in this direction should be gradual. At first a permanent national inheritance tax, while it might be more substantial than any such tax has hitherto been, need not approximate, either in amount or in the extent of the increase by graduation, to what such a tax should ultimately be. This species of tax has again and again been imposed, although only temporarily, by the National Government. It was first imposed by the act of July 6, 1797, when the makers of the Constitution were alive and at the head of affairs. It was a graduated tax: though small in amount, the rate was increased with the amount left to any individual, exceptions being made in the case of certain close kin.

"A similar tax was again imposed by the act of July 1, 1862: a minimum sum of \$1,000 in personal property being excepted from taxation, the tax then becoming progressive according to the remoteness of kin. The war-revenue act of June 13, 1898, provided for an inheritance tax on any sum exceeding the value of \$10,000, the rate of the tax increasing both in accordance with the amounts left and in accordance with the legatee's remoteness of kin. The Supreme Court has held that the succession tax imposed at the time of the Civil War was not a direct tax but an impost or excise which was both constitutional and valid. More recently the court . . . sustained the constitutionality of the inheritance-tax feature of the war-revenue act of 1898."

It is not proposed to present or to consider here any plan of imposing an inheritance tax, but to give, as in previous issues of the Bulletin, the current comment relating to the question under consideration. The quotations made all appeared in print before the delivery of the President's Message on December 4, 1906.

Boston Herald.—“ Shall not a man do what he will with his own?” This question is raised again by the publication of the will of E. C. Swift, the Chicago meat packer, who died last week. He left property valued at \$10,000,000 and upward, and with the exception of \$5,000 to the Methodist Church at Sagamore, in this State, and \$2,000 to the cemetery in that town, made no public bequests. The bulk of his great fortune is left to the widow, his daughter—an only child—and his son-in-law. Coming so soon after the similar disposition of a far greater property by Marshall Field, who made no public bequest except an endowment to the museum which bears his name, the Swift will naturally causes some discussion. Legally, of course, a man may do what he will with his own, except so far as the State steps in with its inheritance tax and takes a tithe in partial compensation for the care and protection which it has given to the fortune builder in his work of amassing riches. But if these two Chicago examples illustrated the rule rather than the exception in the disposition of vast estates, then would very soon arise a popular demand for an income tax, or heavier “ death duties,” or some other method of limiting the size of individual fortunes or preventing that practical re-establishment here of the law of primogeniture and entail which the framers of our Constitution sought to abolish. — *April 10, 1906.*

In discussing recently the various schemes of Socialists and others for preventing the accumulation of large fortunes in single hands, or for dispersing them by taxation or other means, the *Herald* asked if it was certain that the State or Federal Government could make any better use of this surplus wealth than those who earned it have done and are doing. If the excess above a “ reasonable amount,” whatever that may be, were confiscated to the use of the Government, taxation would be reduced; but is that the highest ideal for the general good? . . . In 1905, there was given in this way to the cause of education about \$50,000,000; to charities, \$40,000,000; to religion (in individual gifts), \$6,000,000; to museums and art galleries, \$8,705,000, and to libraries, \$1,000,000. . . . In the last six years rich men have given to colleges and universities the vast sum of \$239,712,720. . . . It is said that nearly every family of large wealth in the leading cities of the country is represented in gifts to various charities and other public benefactions. No country in the world—probably not all of them combined—can show such a record of the benevolent “ dispersion of wealth” as the United States has seen in the last 20 years. — *June 22, 1906.*

The *Herald* has declared its sympathy with the efforts making to collect from wealth a fairer share of the cost of government. This would not only be just in itself, but would do much to allay the spirit of discontent among the people over the undue privileges and opportunities enjoyed by the rich. But the tax proposed by the President is not for the purpose of revenue—the government is now collecting a large surplus—nor to equalize the burdens of the people. . . . It would not interfere with the heaping up of billion-dollar fortunes by whatever means are within the limits of “ law-honesty,” nor with their use for the most unworthy purposes. It seeks only to prevent their transmission entire to any individual.

The plan suggested to accomplish this is a “ progressive tax,” which is simply a euphemism for confiscation. If a man has accumulated \$5,000,000 or \$10,000,000, and wishes to “ hand it on” to his wife or his son, or to any other person, the

Government would, by a tax, take all beyond what the law should prescribe as a "healthy limit." . . . If Congress would repeal some of the present taxes on the common necessities of the people, and enact as a revenue measure a reasonable inheritance tax, such as exists in England, and a graded income tax, if it can be lawfully done, the restriction and disposition of fortunes may very well be left to the operation of natural laws and individual judgment. — *December 2, 1906.*

Boston Globe. — When President Roosevelt suggested a short time ago that some means be provided to limit the accumulation of great fortunes, there were two sets of opinions on the proposition which received widest circulation. One was to the effect that it would be a good thing to curb the craze for wealth, and the other was to the effect that it would derange our industrial civilization to set a limit to the exercise of any man's ambition or enterprise or skill.

Neither of these views was any more philosophical than the President's scheme of limitation. There is, first of all, no intenser craze for wealth to-day than there ever was in any great nation of which history gives us a detailed and correct industrial picture. Neither is there much danger of the successful effort to set a limit and bound to a man's accumulative activity in any such civilization as ours. The fact is that the industrial development of the world has been preceded or accompanied by changes so vast in the art and opportunity of making money that what appears to be a craze for wealth is only the expression of the greatly multiplied capacity of the individual to make wealth. — *September 29, 1906.*

O. M. Wentworth. — It is safe to say that few, if any, of our monuments to industry, enterprise, and courage, such, for example, as the great transportation systems of the country present, would be in the state in which we see them to-day if the projectors and builders had been prohibited from accumulating wealth beyond a certain point. . . . Nothing would more surely injure the progress of the country than the limitation of fortunes. At the present time vast sums of money are spent by the rich and by those who are accumulating wealth, and vast sums, moreover, are given away for the many benevolent objects which are presented to men almost every day, and for educational purposes. If accumulation were limited, this giving and spending would have to cease. — *Boston Sunday Globe, July 15, 1906.*

William Lloyd Garrison. — Why should great fortunes be limited? Is it because excessive wealth tends to corrupt its possessors and consequently to corrupt society? If such is the effect of accumulation, why is the pursuit so universally encouraged? Certainly success in money-getting is rewarded with power, respectability, and distinction. To the public, millionaires are of far more interest than scholars or philanthropists. Why should a protest now arise at the logical outcome of a creed? . . . Who knows when the safety line of accumulation is reached, the point at which a potential evil may be arrested and only the quality of beneficence be retained? Nobody. As many different lines would be drawn as there are persons to draw them. The proposition to fix a maximum figure by law is an idle dream. . . . The primal fact to be faced is that privilege is a parasite and not a partner in production. The distinction is a vital one, yet ever hidden in the confusion created by using "capital" as a synonym for "privilege." Separate the two, and the latter, founded on injustice, will be speedily exposed and reached. With monopoly abolished and equal opportunity open to every citizen, the public danger of great fortunes will be minimized, and they, being the badge of desert and no longer the brand of crime, will be duly dissipated by the natural vicissitudes which truly make riches a thing with wings. — *Boston Sunday Globe, July 15, 1906.*

Henry Abrahams. — Does the man who starts a new industry or a factory where hundreds are employed injure society? Does the manufacturer who establishes a factory where good wages and good sanitary conditions prevail injure the

State because he drives out the tenement workers? We are suffering from many ills, but those who would limit wealth are suffering from scientific heresy. Social reform we want, and we will get it. The continuity of man's progress from the brute has been proved by Wallace and Darwin. Trusts, syndicates, and all monopolies are evil. — *Boston Sunday Globe, July 15, 1906.*

Boston Traveler. — The tax on inheritances has been found by experience in many of the States to be one of the most satisfactory and effective ways to get money by taxation that has ever been devised. Inheritance taxes, levied at the time when property is passing into new hands, are easy to collect. Such a tax means a square deal to the State, and in practice in New York and Illinois, for example, has produced a surprisingly large revenue, which in these days of tax dodgers is the main point to be considered. — *February 9, 1906.*

The inheritance tax that President Roosevelt suggests has long been in operation in England, being graduated from one per cent on estates of less than \$2,500 to eight per cent on estates of more than \$5,000,000. If a man died leaving \$5,000,000, his estate would pay the State \$400,000, which sum would never be felt by the heirs. The heirs of the man leaving \$2,500 or less would pay but \$25. — *April 18, 1906.*

The inheritance tax is a tax which accomplishes results. It provides for the payment of money from estates at a time when inheritance money is passing from the old to the new, and the heirs will not question the tax or resent the payment. . . . The income from an inheritance tax each year would reduce materially, if not make unnecessary, the present State tax. Why not give it a trial? — *November 22, 1906.*

Boston Advertiser. — The path of the proposed income tax in France is not to be strewn with roses, in spite of the fact that the immediate necessity of revenue is admitted. For now there appears to be a determination on the part of many of the people that this income tax shall merely replace some of the existing taxes rather than be superposed on them. . . . To permit the income tax to fall into this impotent condition would defeat the purpose of those who have looked to such an agency to make up the big deficiency in the budget. . . . With the growing sentiment against the resort to an income tax except as a measure to replace existing taxation the problem assumes even more disturbing proportions. — *June 19, 1906.*

If the President's idea of a federal inheritance tax were adopted, the nation would at least be sure that some of the great fortunes would be used for the public benefit; and, indeed, both the President of the United States and the Harvard President are right in saying that great wealth, acquired by whatever means from the public, must be used in great part for the good of the public, or grave evil will result. Whatever remedy against that evil may seem wisest, of the evil itself the career of too many millionaires of the Pittsburg class has given conclusive proof. — *November 17, 1906.*

It is as well to bear these facts in mind in any discussion of the plans for new taxation of the business of the country. To many, indeed, it may prove a fresh argument in favor of the President's plans for taxation of the great fortunes of the country, that thereby some of the old taxes may be decreased. But, as a political proposition, it seems quite safe to predict that tariff revision must accompany any plan for new taxation; and that the same Congress which considers the inheritance tax and the interstate franchise tax must also consider the new tariff bill, if none shall have recently passed Congress before that time. — *November 30, 1906.*

Boston Post. — Massachusetts now taxes collateral inheritances and bequests. This acts as a tax upon benevolence and as an encouragement to the concentration of great fortunes. It also works to the deprivation of the community

of its righteous share which a tax upon all inheritances, direct as well as collateral, would assure to the public. It is notorious that the greater part of taxable personal property escapes the payment of contribution to the support of the Government during the lifetime of its owners. It is considered no crime to hide such property from the view of the assessors. The practice is well nigh universal, contrary though it is to the principles of morality. The only point at which the community can lay hands upon such concealed property and levy the contribution which it ought to have paid is when it is exposed to view in the Probate Court. In New York it was recently shown that estates in probate aggregating \$247,000,000 had stood for only \$17,000,000 for purposes of taxation during the life of their deceased owners. — *July 27, 1906.*

It is not an unreasonable inference from the general tone of President Roosevelt's address at Harrisburg that he looks to bring about a revival of the tax upon incomes through congressional action, and also the re-establishment of a federal tax on inheritances. Both of these forms of taxation have held a place in the federal system in times when an increase of revenue was imperative, but have been discarded as soon as the emergency passed. It is extremely doubtful that they can be revived even to accomplish the purpose which the President indicates, namely, the wider and more equal distribution of the great fortunes accumulating in the hands of a few. There is a peculiarly difficult obstacle to re-establishment of a tax on incomes, found in the emphatic decision by the Supreme Court that the Democratic law enacted in the second Cleveland administration was unconstitutional. . . . As for a tax upon inheritances, that is so manifestly a natural and proper source of State revenue that its appropriation by the Federal Government would be strongly resented. — *October 8, 1906.*

It is notorious that, especially in all large cities, personal property does not pay the share which it ought in the support of local and State government. It is easily hidden, and its owners seem to think it no crime to hide it. . . . The one point at which there may be erected a barrier to this demoralizing practice is the Probate Court. In the passage of fortunes through inheritance the things which have been concealed must be disclosed, and here the community may step in and exact a tribute which has been withheld. . . . The public should take what belongs to it — or as nearly as may be — and this is what a tax on inheritance means. It is right; it is absolutely necessary. — *October 26, 1906.*

Wall Street Journal. — President Roosevelt is not the only one who has discovered in great individual fortunes a possible peril to American liberties. As long ago as 1849 Horace Mann, one of the most patriotic and unselfish servants of the people this country has ever produced and to whom it owes in largest measures its present great system of public school education, said:

"Vast fortunes are misfortunes to the State. They confer irresponsible power; and human nature, except in the rarest instances, has proved incapable of wielding irresponsible power without abuse. The feudalism of capital is not a whit less formidable than the feudalism of force. The millionaire of our day is no less dangerous to the welfare of the community than was the baronial lord of the Middle Ages."

These words are better than anything that has been said on the same subject in our own day, and yet many, as they look back upon the history of the past 57 years, will be apt to regard the fears of Horace Mann as absurd. How small seem the vast fortunes of 1849 as compared with the vast fortunes of 1906. Yet the individual fortunes of to-day are not much greater in proportion to the aggregate wealth of the country than those of 1849 were to the aggregate wealth of that day. But formidable as appeared to Mr. Mann the individual fortunes of 1849, the

course of history shows that they did not retard the growth of the country either in liberty or prosperity. In spite of Mr. Mann's assertion that vast fortunes are misfortunes to the State, the country has made important progress. — *In Springfield Republican, October 5, 1906.*

Arthur H. Vandenberg. — By presidential proclamation the United States of America honors another Thanksgiving Day. Out of thankful hearts and bountiful blessings, the peoples of the land sanction the action at the White House and bow in humbleness at their own firesides. "Certain thoughts are prayers," said Victor Hugo. "There are moments when, whatever be the attitude, the soul is on its knees." Thus it must be this November with the American people.

Firstly, the nation's prayer must be for an amelioration of the peculiar social conditions of mankind. Modern civilization, or that which is so called, has operated two ways: to make one part of society more affluent and the other part more wretched than would be the lot of either in a natural state. We are surfeited with millionaires and paupers. The greed of the one keeps pace with the poverty of the other. Thanks to American prosperity, pauperdom is now but a comparative term. Our almshouses are as unpopular as our prisons. Yet the advancing mode of life — the civilization of the new century — tends toward an increase in the abortive conditions of those people who are fortunate or unfortunate enough to be at the ends of the social scale. Lamartine warned us years ago that barbarism recommences with an excess of civilization. Unless we turn aside, is it not possible that our own excesses may bear the Frenchman's brand of Cain? It is a query for the thoughtful citizen of the Republic whether the rich are not to become too rich and the poor too poor. The President of the nation has suggested limitation by law upon unnecessary and dangerous opulence. Therein he has sounded a rallying cry. But the social system and its individual factors themselves alone can regulate continued trouble in the other direction. Yet both are open to regulation. America has no need for billionaires. They were not contemplated by that immortal declaration which proclaimed all men to be equal. Their wealth — and the wealth of any man whose property in the smallest degree approaches ten figures — is a standing menace. And still, on the other hand, that rank socialism which would strip all men of their greater gains and bring the income of the energetic and the indolent to a parity may equally be classed as heresy. There must be a safe, sane, happy medium. Perhaps the answer to the problem rests in an income tax which shall encourage small fortunes by assessing them but lightly while it discourages vast and unwholesome aggrandizement by bearing the more heavily upon it. Such a thing would not be impossible. An income tax upon a sliding scale can and some day will equalize men's fortunes — and long before socialism levels possessions to a common measure and removes every incentive to success. . . .

The nation's prayer must be for speedy rearrangement of that social system which permits the amassing of too great fortunes; it must be for an equitable limitation upon the making of unnecessary millions; it must be for less centralization of the nation's wealth in the hands of a few; and it must be for the accomplishment of this millenium without retarding those legitimate opportunities which must always continue to be the rightful heritage of American energy and brain.

Springfield Republican. — The President must, in presenting the inheritance tax proposal, appear as advising new taxation when present revenues are ample, and no one can foresee when they will become insufficient. Obviously, then, the recommendation must be accompanied by further recommendation in regard to a remission or reduction of existing taxes. . . . In a word, the inheritance tax question cannot be thrown into Congress without carrying with it the tariff reduction question. — *November 23, 1906.*

Chicago Journal. — Everybody sees that the time is at hand when wealth must be limited or the Republic suffer, and a rational inheritance tax seems to be the efficient and reasonable remedy. The very rich men of the country know this, and they are consequently holding in their hands and at the same time trying to make friends. It is an interesting state of affairs, but it can have only one outcome. The man who is able to accumulate wealth far beyond his own needs must give a portion of his wealth to the nation.

CHILD LABOR AND THE CENSUS.

The following letter is self-explanatory:

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

OFFICE OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL,

BOSTON, December 20th, 1906.

CHARLES F. PIDGIN, Esq., *Chief, Bureau of Statistics of Labor.*

DEAR SIR: — Your letter of December 17th seeks my opinion upon the effect of section 16 of chapter 423 of the Acts of the year 1904, which provides that —

“The said bureau, after it shall have gathered the facts called for in this act, shall cause to be prepared and printed reports of the same, with proper analyses, for the use of the general court, but in the reports so required or otherwise, no disclosure shall be made of the names of individuals, firms or corporations supplying the information called for by this act, such information being deemed confidential; and any enumerator or employee of said bureau violating this provision shall be fined as provided for in the succeeding section for wilful deceit and falsehood.”

Your communication further states that it appears from the information gathered by the enumerators appointed under the provisions of such statute, that in some cases children under fourteen years of age were at the date when such information was obtained, employed in manufacturing or mercantile establishments contrary to law; and you inquire whether it is your duty, upon request of any person, to furnish the names and addresses of the children so employed.

I am of opinion that you should in no case furnish such information. The language of section 16 above quoted is explicit in declaring that the names of individuals, firms or corporations who supply information called for by the chapter are not to be disclosed, and that the information so furnished is confidential. It is obvious that were the facts so obtained to be treated as other than confidential, the effectiveness of the statute would be seriously impaired and the intention of the Legislature in the premises defeated.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) DANA MALONE,
Attorney General.

COTTON MANUFACTURING IN MASSACHUSETTS IN 1850 AND 1905.

From an article published in 1850 entitled "Labor and Land Reform," the following quotation is made:

"Among the most cheering indications of human progress, in respect to material well-being, are to be found the increased reward for labor, and the improved prices of raw productions of industry, as compared with the rent of capital. The quantities of food and the articles of comfort which are brought to market annually are increasing in proportion to the variation of commercial success, while the rent of capital, as indicated in the interest on money and the dividends of factory corporations, is on the decline. That is to say, industry is coming to enjoy the larger proportion of its own products, and capital to obtain a less considerable share of the general wealth."

From another part of the article the following is quoted: "Capitalists and the money power are always exceedingly anxious to have people work. They are very solicitous to have industry promoted and production facilitated. They are ready to supply to the utmost the means by which the national wealth may be increased by the labor of many, but above all are they solicitous that the products of that industry and the larger share of that wealth shall, by adroit legislation, be turned into the coffers of the few."

The same article gives the comparative dividends in a Massachusetts cotton corporation, the figures presented being duly attested by the treasurer of the corporation. For the years 1844-1849, the treasurer stated in his report that the corporation paid a dividend of 20 per cent in 1845 and five per cent in 1849. From 1844 to 1846 it divided 52 per cent, or more than one-half its capital; from 1847 to 1849, but 19 per cent.

Proportional Division of Selling Price in 1845.

CLASSIFICATION	Values	Percentages
Raw material, cotton	\$156,000	34.2
Labor (cash wages),	50,232	11.1
Other expenses,	68,768	15.1
Capital in dividends,	180,000	39.6
TOTALS,	\$455,000	100.0

Proportional Division of Selling Price in 1849.

CLASSIFICATION.	Values	Percentages
Raw material, cotton	\$274,560	55.0
Labor (cash wages),	66,560	13.3
Other expenses,	128,000	25.7
Capital in dividends,	30,000	6.0
TOTALS,	\$499,120	100.0

A comparison of the preceding tables shows very marked variations. In 1849, as compared with 1845, there was an increase of 21 per cent in the value of raw material, an increase of two per cent in wages paid to labor, and more than 10 per cent in other expenses, while there was a reduction of 33 per cent in the amount paid in dividends. It should be borne in mind that these percentages are based on the selling price, and that the percentage allotted for dividends is the proportion of the selling price and not of the capital invested. If the amount paid in dividends was compared with the capital invested, the percentage for dividends would be larger, unless, as might happen in some instances, the total value of product was not larger than the capital invested in the business.

It is interesting to bring into comparison figures for 149 cotton mills as shown by the State Census of 1905:

Proportional Division of Selling Price in 1905.

CLASSIFICATION.	Values	Percentages
Raw material, cotton	\$79,767,088	61.75
Labor (cash wages),	32,352,325	25.05
Other expenses,	11,935,105	9.24
Capital in dividends,	5,116,981	3.96
TOTALS,	\$129,171,499	100.00

Comparing these figures with those given for 1849, an increase is found for the value of raw material of 6.75 per cent; in wages of 11.75 per cent, which is, in reality, an increase of 90.38 per cent in wage earning power. There has been a marked decrease in "other expenses" and a falling off in the proportion of dividends to the selling price as compared even with 1849; but, as stated before, it must be remembered that if the amount of profit is applied to actual capital invested, the percentage would be much larger. The comparisons for the three years, however, being upon identically the same basis, the results show, as before indicated, an increase in the value of raw material, a great advance in wages, and a reduction in other expenses and the amount available for dividends when compared with the selling price.

RAILROAD PENSIONS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.

In a report published in 1905, entitled "Railway Provident Institutions in English-Speaking Countries," Mr. M. Riebenack, Comptroller of The Pennsylvania Railroad Company, has presented an exhaustive study of the Railway pension system as it existed in 1903. In the following article the more salient features of the pension systems described in the report will be presented, together with certain facts since obtained through correspondence with officials of the more important railway systems in the United States and Canada.

UNITED STATES.

As early as 1884 the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company had established a pension fund as an auxiliary feature of the company's relief department. In 1900,

the annual subscription made by the company to the pension fund was increased from the earlier figure (\$25,000) to that of \$75,000. In that year also The Pennsylvania Railroad Company established a definite pension system for the Lines East of Pittsburg. Accordingly, the year 1900 may well be accepted as the date of the inauguration of this important feature by the railroads of the country.

In 1901, The Pennsylvania Railroad Company extended the system adopted for its eastern lines to the Lines West of Pittsburg. In rapid succession other important railroads followed suit as follows:

In 1901, the Chicago and Northwestern Railway Co. and the Illinois Central Railroad Co.; in 1902, the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad Co.; in 1903, the Houston and Texas Central Railroad Co., the Oregon Railroad and Navigation Co., The Oregon Short Line Railroad Co., the Philadelphia and Reading Railway Co., the San Antonio and Aransas Pass Railway Co., the Southern Pacific Company for its two branches,—the Pacific System and the Sunset Route,—the Union Pacific Railroad Co., and the Buffalo, Rochester, and Pittsburgh Railway Co.; and, in 1904, the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad Co.

Each of these roads adopted a definite pension system of its own, but, although varying in certain particulars due to the physical or financial conditions of the several roads, the pension systems adopted were largely modelled on those of the Baltimore and Ohio and the Pennsylvania Railroads. Several other important railroad companies have well-defined plans for a pension department under consideration, but have not yet adopted a definite system. A consideration of the individual plans adopted or proposed will be found below under separate statements for the several railroad companies.

The institution of pension systems by the various railroads is uniformly intended "to provide for compulsory or involuntary retirement from service at 65 or 70 years of age, and voluntary retirement consequent upon permanent incapacitation between the ages of 61 and 69 years." (See *Railway Provident Institutions*, p. 129.) The requisite length of service before retirement ranges from 10 to 30 years, and in computation of length of service, *actual* time only in service is considered, and deduction is made for time out of service.

Ordinarily the employee is granted a fixed allowance on retirement, which allowance ceases on the death of the beneficiary. Such allowance is commonly computed at one per cent of the average monthly wage received for the ten years next preceding retirement, for each year of actual service. For example, an employee who has been in *actual* service for 40 years, and whose average wages for the last ten years of service have been \$40 a month, upon retirement would receive \$16 a month as a pension allowance. There is no provision in the case of any railroad for the commutation of allowance by the payment of a lump sum.

The pension plan appears to have been an outgrowth from the earlier policy of awarding allowances wholly from the company's resources as pensions or gratuities to meritorious employees upon the occasion of their retirement from service. Where no definite pension system has been adopted, it appears to be a general practice for railroad companies to follow the earlier method. In such case the sums thus expended are charged up to current expenses.

Usually in financing these pension fund operations the railroad companies set aside an original fund and make provision for an annual appropriation which shall not exceed a definite sum. In seven cases the annual appropriation was the exclusive arrangement; two companies provided for the payment of the current charges irrespective of the amount; and in one case an endowment fund of \$4,000,000 has been provided for this and other purposes. Provision is usually made for ratable reductions in allowances where pension fund receipts do not cover fund expenditures.

The administration of these pension funds is usually placed in the hands of

either a board of officers or board of pensioners appointed by the railroad companies. In such cases an annual report is presented either as a separate report or is included in the regular annual report of the company. In other cases the pension fund is not administered by a separate department and therefore does not appear as a separate feature in the annual report.

According to Mr. Riebenack, 18 railroads reported pension schemes in 1903. Of these, 16 were in full operation and two were under consideration. The 18 roads reporting pension plans represented at that time "an aggregate of 50,000 miles, or about 24 per cent of the total railway mileage of the country, and upwards of 500,000 employees, or about 38 per cent of the total number of employees of all roads in the United States. The pension funds represent an aggregate annual appropriation not to exceed \$1,350,000, when necessary to make payment of pension allowances, while eight of the roads set aside originally, as a basis of pension or working funds, an amount aggregating about \$600,000."

Atlantic Coast Line Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 4138 miles of railway and employed 17,512 persons. The pension department was established February 1, 1904, and was placed under the administration of a "Board of Pensions" appointed by the company's board of directors. The company appropriates annually a sum not exceeding \$50,000 for pension purposes, and provision is made for a ratable reduction of the pension allowances whenever the expenditures would otherwise exceed the receipts.

At the close of the company's fiscal year in 1905, payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1904 amounted to \$13,587.56, and the corresponding expenditures were \$10,070.46. There were 39 pensioners carried at the end of 1905, and four deaths had occurred since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was reported as 70 years, and the average length of service of those retired was 28 years, six months.

Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 4,410 miles of railway and employed 55,688 persons. The pension fund was put into active operation as an auxiliary to the relief department October 1, 1884, and is under the executive charge of the superintendent of that department. Four years' membership in the relief department is required to entitle to pension membership. In 1900, the annual appropriation was increased from the original figure (\$25,000) to \$75,000. As formerly, a reserve fund of \$6,000 from the relief department may also be drawn upon in case of need. Any unused surplus from the pension fund may, on the other hand, be applied to uses of the relief department.

Up to June 30, 1905, the close of the company's fiscal year, its payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1884 amounted to \$873,300, and the corresponding expenditures were \$829,741.91. There were 377 pensioners on that date, and 480 deaths had occurred since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was 66.4 years. The average length of service of those retired was not reported.

Bessemer and Lake Erie Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 207 miles of railway and employed 2,676 persons. Under date of March 2, 1906, this company reported that it "has no separate pension or retirement fund, but is included within the provisions of the Carnegie Relief Fund of The Carnegie Company (the fund established by Mr. Carnegie)." This endowment fund of \$4,000,000 provides for accident and death

benefits and pension allowances. The Bessemer and Lake Erie Railroad, standing as a constituent member of The Carnegie Company, began to participate in the benefits from this fund in December, 1906. Pensions are awarded to the railroad employees on retirement at the age of 60 years, after 15 years' continuous service.

Boston and Albany Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 389 miles of railway and employed 5,400 persons. Under date of February 15, 1906, the company reported that, although the New York Central Lines had under consideration a system of pensioning employees, nothing had been put into effect. It was hoped that by the first of July, 1906, a system of pension and assurance might be instituted, but no notice to that effect has been received.

Buffalo, Rochester, and Pittsburgh Railway Company.

In 1903, this company operated 500 miles of railway and employed 4,454 persons. A pension plan was adopted July 1, 1903, but no special department was organized, as the plan is handled through the regular official channels. The company contributes \$25,000 annually to the fund. The pension allowance rate is rather larger than that commonly adopted, being based on two per cent instead of one per cent of the average monthly wage for the 10 years preceding retirement.

Up to June 30, 1905, the company's payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1903 amounted to \$50,000, and the expenditures were \$2,868.71. There were eight pensioners on that date, and no deaths had occurred since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was 64 years, six months, and the average length of service of those retired was 22 years, one and one-half months.

Central Railroad Company of New Jersey.

In 1903, this company operated 685 miles of railway and employed 11,953 persons. Under date of February 16, 1906, the company reported that its executive committee had not as yet put into force the pension system which had been devised.

Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company.

In 1903, this company operated 7,392 miles of railway and employed 32,295 persons. Its pension system was put into effect January 1, 1901, and is administered by a pension board, consisting of five officers of the company, appointed by the board of directors. These officers serve one year or until their successors are selected. An annual appropriation not to exceed \$200,000 is made by the company, and provision is made for ratable reduction in pension allowances when the annual appropriation might otherwise prove insufficient to meet the current expenditures.

At the close of the company's fiscal year, in 1905, its payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1901 amounted to \$276,441.26, that amount being identical with the amount of expenditures for the same period. There were 279 pensioners carried at the end of the year 1905, and 56 deaths had occurred since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was 69 years, and the average length of service of those retired was 33 years.

Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 965 miles of railway and employed 33,307 persons. Its pension department, established June 1, 1902, is administered by a pension board, consisting of six officers of the company, appointed by the company's board of managers. These officers serve one year or until their successors

are selected and duly qualified. The company makes an annual appropriation not exceeding \$50,000, and provision is made for the ratable reduction in pension allowances when the annual appropriation might otherwise prove insufficient to meet the current expenditures.

A pension provision, not commonly adopted by other railroads, provides for the granting of a permanent disablement allowance to a faithful employee of the company who may receive permanent injuries which totally incapacitate him for his regular or other vocation.

At the close of the company's fiscal year in 1905, its payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1902 amounted to \$78,863.93, that amount being identical with the amount of expenditures for the same period. There were 146 pensioners carried at the end of the year 1905, and 26 deaths were reported since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was given as 66 years, and the average length of service as 35 years.

Houston and Texas Central Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 690 miles of railway and employed 5,391 persons. Its pension department, established January 1, 1903, is administered by a board of pensions consisting of seven officers of the company — the vice-president, manager, engineer of maintenance of way, superintendent of motive power, auditor, general attorney, and chief surgeon. The company contributed \$20,000 as a working fund and provides an annual appropriation not to exceed \$15,000.

At the close of the company's fiscal year, in 1905, its payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1903 amounted to \$11,101.43, that amount being identical with the amount of expenditures for the same period. There were 24 pensioners carried at the end of 1905, and two deaths had occurred since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was 64 years, six months, and the average length of service of those retired was 34 years.

Illinois Central Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 4,301 miles of railway and employed 34,249 persons. Its pension department, established July 1, 1901, is administered by seven officers, known as the "Board of Pensions," appointed by the company's board of directors. The company contributed \$250,000 as an original fund and provides an annual appropriation not exceeding \$100,000.

At the close of the company's fiscal year, in 1903, its expenditures for pensions since inauguration in 1901 amounted to \$70,856.20. The number of pensioners was 159, and 20 deaths were reported since the inauguration of the fund. The average length of service of retired employees was 33 years, three months, and the average age at retirement was 66 years, 10 months. More recent data are not submitted for publication by the company.

New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 3,422 miles of railway and employed 49,852 persons. Under date of February 19, 1906, a report was received stating that although this company is now pensioning a considerable number of its old employees, it has as yet adopted no regularly constituted system. The company has, however, a well-defined plan under consideration which it hopes to put into operation in the near future. Presumably such plan when adopted will be extended to include the whole "Vanderbilt System" (of which this company is a constituent member), with a mileage, in 1903, of approximately 15,000 miles and upwards of 170,000 employees. No official statement to this effect, however, has been received.

Oregon Railroad and Navigation Company.

In 1903, this company operated 1,123 miles of railway and employed 4,180 persons. A pension scheme was adopted January 1, 1903, and is administered by a board of pensions, consisting of officers of the company.

At the close of the company's fiscal year, in 1905, its payments to the fund since its inauguration in 1903 amounted to \$50,000, and the corresponding expenditures were \$2,062.70. There were four pensioners carried at the end of 1905, and no deaths had occurred. The average age at retirement was 76 years, and the average length of service of those retired was 24 years.

Oregon Short Line Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 1,266 miles of railway and employed 4,700 persons. The pension scheme adopted by the Oregon Railroad and Navigation Company January 1, 1903, was adopted at the same time by this company.

Under date of February 24, 1906, this company reports that it has no pension fund, but that all expenditures on this account are charged to "operating expenses." At the close of the company's fiscal year, in 1905, its payments on account of pensions amounted to \$3,133.55. There were ten pensioners carried at the end of 1905, and two deaths had occurred since the pension scheme was adopted. The average age at retirement was 68 years, and the average length of service of those retired was 26 years.

The Pennsylvania Railroad Company.

The Pennsylvania Railroad Company operates two lines of railways—the Lines East of Pittsburgh, and the Lines West of Pittsburgh. In 1903, the total mileage operated was 10,913, and the total number of employees was 172,024.

The pension department for the Lines East was established January 1, 1900, and that for the Lines West, January 1, 1901. Both departments are conducted on the same general plan as distinct departments of the service under the president of The Pennsylvania Railroad Company. The pension department of each Line is administered by its own board of officers, comprising the vice-president, the general manager, and the comptroller of that Line.

Lines East of Pittsburgh. For this Line the company makes an annual appropriation not exceeding \$390,000. Since the inauguration of the fund for the Lines East in 1900 up to the end of its fiscal year in 1905, the company's expenditures for operating expenses of the pension department were \$28,857.83, and for allowances for pensions \$2,004,087.59. The number of pensioners carried at the end of the year 1905 was 1,810, and 890 deaths had occurred since the fund was inaugurated. The average age at retirement was 71 years, three months, and the average length of service of those retired was 34 years, two months.

Lines West of Pittsburgh. An annual appropriation not exceeding \$150,000 is made by the company for this Line. Since inauguration of the fund for the Lines West, in 1901, up to the end of the fiscal year in 1905, the company's expenditures for operating expenses of the pension department were \$11,166.49, and for pension allowances \$634,307.55. The number of pensioners carried at the end of the year 1905 was 656, and 215 deaths had occurred since the fund was inaugurated. The average age at retirement was 71 years, one month, and the average length of service of those retired was 33 years, 11 months.

Philadelphia and Reading Railway Company.

In 1903, this company operated 1,467 miles of railway and employed 23,721 persons. A pension system was established January 1, 1903, which is administered

by the regular staff of the company. For pension purposes the company makes an annual appropriation not exceeding \$75,000. In addition to the retirement allowances provision is made for permanent disablement allowances to be granted to injured employees or those permanently incapacitated through sickness, irrespective of age or length of service.

During the year 1903 the company's expenditures for pension purposes amounted to \$19,073.19. The number of pensioners at the end of the year was 89, and three deaths occurred during that year. Later reports are unobtainable.

San Antonio and Aransas Pass Railway Company.

This company operated 678 miles of railway and employed 1,991 persons in 1903. Its pension department was established January 1, 1903, and is administered by a board of pensions consisting of seven officers of the company. An original investment fund of \$7,500 was provided by the company, the interest from which is applied to payment of pensions. A further annual appropriation of \$5,000 may be made whenever the accrued interest shall prove insufficient to cover the expenditures.

Under date of March 3, 1906, this company stated that the fund had not been in operation for a sufficient length of time to justify the tabulation of results.

Southern Pacific Company.

The Southern Pacific Company operates two systems of railroads, — the Pacific System and the Sunset Route. Pension departments, similar in general particulars, were established for each system January 1, 1903. Each department is administered by a board of pensions, consisting of seven officers of its respective system.

The Pacific System. In 1903, the railway mileage of this system was 5,831 miles, and the number of employees was 31,766. An original fund of \$100,000 was set aside as a pension fund, and an additional annual appropriation not exceeding \$90,000 is also provided by the company.

The Sunset Route. In 1903, the railway mileage of this system was 1,621 miles, and the number of employees was 11,672. An original fund of \$25,000 was set aside as a pension fund, and an additional annual appropriation not exceeding \$17,500 is also provided by the company.

Statements as to company contributions, pension allowances, number of pensioners, etc., are not available for either system.

Union Pacific Railroad Company.

In 1903, this company operated 2,933 miles of railway and employed 15,338 persons. Its pension department was established February 1, 1903, and is administered by a board of pensions consisting of six officers of the company. The sum of \$100,000 was set apart originally as a pension fund, and provision is made for an annual appropriation not to exceed \$50,000.

Since the inauguration of the fund in 1903 up to the end of the company's fiscal year in 1905, the company's payments to the fund amounted to \$30,492.58, which was the identical amount of allowances for pensions for the same period. The number of pensioners carried at the end of 1905 was 63, and there were five deaths reported since the inauguration of the fund. The average age at retirement was 68 years, and the average length of service of those retired was 30 years.

CANADA.

Two important railway systems in Canada — the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and the Intercolonial Railway of Canada — should receive consideration

inasmuch as the former has already adopted, and the latter has now under consideration, pension systems, the general features of which are common to roads in the United States.

The Canadian Pacific Railway Company.

This company operated 8,183 miles of track and employed 35,132 persons in 1903. Its pension department was established January 1, 1903, and is administered by a committee consisting of the following officers of the company: president, vice-presidents, and chief solicitor. The sum of \$250,000 was set apart originally as a pension fund, and provision is made for an annual appropriation not to exceed \$80,000. Since the inauguration of the fund in 1903 up to June 30, 1905, the end of the company's fiscal year, the company's payments to the fund amounted to \$41,000 and the corresponding allowances for pensions were \$26,785.01. The number of pensioners carried at the end of 1905 was 142, and the number of deaths since inauguration and up to December 31, 1905, was 29. The average age at retirement was 67 years, five months, and the average length of service of those retired was 18 years, five months.

Intercolonial Railway of Canada.

In 1903, this company operated 1,342 miles of railway and employed 5,525 persons. Under date of February 17, 1906, a report was received stating that the matter of establishing a pension system is still under consideration by the Government of Canada, which is responsible for the management of the Intercolonial. A bill, with data accompanying the same, is now before the Cabinet. The best features of the pension schemes adopted by the railways of the continent are incorporated in this bill.

The table below, compiled from reports received by this Bureau from the several railroad companies, shows the company payments made to the several funds since the inauguration of these funds, the expenditures for allowances for pension for the corresponding periods, the number of pensioners carried at the close of the year 1905 (except in cases where an earlier report alone was available), the average age at retirement, the average length of service of those retired, and the number of deaths since the inauguration of the pension system.

The returns were for periods beginning with the inauguration of the pension system by the several railroads and ending with the close of their respective fiscal years in 1905, except where otherwise specified in the table. The data for each railroad, therefore, may not be considered as covering identical periods of time. The date of inauguration of the several funds, the mileage operated, and the number of employees for each railroad appear above in the text. The returns for seven railroad companies considered in the text above do not appear in the general table for the following reasons: The Bessemer and Lake Erie Railroad Company has no separate pension fund, but is included within the provisions of the Carnegie Relief Fund, in which this company began to participate in December, 1906. The Boston and Albany Railroad, the Central Railroad Company of New Jersey, and the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company have under consideration pension systems already devised for them, but have not yet put them into effect. The Southern Pacific Company established pension departments for its two branches, — the Pacific System and the Sunset Route, — in 1903, but no returns have as yet been received for either branch. The Intercolonial Railway of Canada has a system devised for it by the Minister of Railways, but that system has not yet been adopted, being still under consideration by the Government of Canada.

COMPANIES.	Company Payments to Fund since Inauguration	Expenditures for Allowances for Pensions since Inauguration	Number of Pensioners Carried at End of 1905	AVERAGE AGE AT RETIREMENT		AVERAGE LENGTH OF SERVICE OF THOSE RETIRED		Number of Deaths since Inauguration
				Years	Months	Years	Months	
<i>United States.</i>								
Atlantic Coast Line Railroad Co.,	\$13,587.56	\$10,070.46	39	70	-	28	6	9
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co.,	1873,300.00	1829,741.91	1377	66	5	-	-	1480
Buffalo, Rochester & Pittsburgh Railway Co.,	150,000.00	12,868.71	18	64	6	122	1½	-
Chicago and Northwestern Railway Co.,	276,441.26	276,441.26	279	69	-	33	-	56
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad Co.,	78,863.93	78,863.93	146	66	-	35	-	26
Houston and Texas Central Railroad Co.,	11,101.43	11,101.43	24	64	6	34	-	2
Illinois Central Railroad Co.,	250,000.00	70,856.20	159	66	10	33	3	220
Oregon Railroad and Navigation Co.,	50,000.00	2,062.70	4	76	-	24	-	-
Oregon Short Line Railroad Co.,	3,133.55	3,133.55	10	68	-	26	-	2
Pennsylvania Railroad Co.: Lines East of Pittsburgh,	2,032,945.42	2,004,087.59	1,810	71	3	34	2	890
Lines West of Pittsburgh,	645,474.04	634,307.55	656	71	1	33	11	215
Philadelphia and Reading Railway Co.,	19,073.19	19,073.19	89	-	-	-	-	23
Union Pacific Railroad Co.,	30,492.58	30,492.58	63	68	-	30	-	5
<i>Canada.</i>								
Canadian Pacific Railway Co.,	410,000.00	26,785.01	142	67	5	18	5	29
TOTALS,	\$4,744,412.96	\$3,999,886.07	3,866	-	-	-	-	1,737

¹ Data to June 30, 1905, end of fiscal year.

² Returns for year ending Dec. 31, 1903 — the latest returns available.

³ Includes \$28,857.83 — strictly department operating expenses.

⁴ Includes \$11,166.49 — strictly department operating expenses.

⁵ Up to Dec. 31, 1905.

From the definite returns obtained from 14 railroad companies we observe that the aggregate payments to pension funds by these companies since inauguration of the funds have amounted to \$4,744,412.96, while the expenditures from the same funds have amounted to \$3,999,886.07. The number of pensioners carried at the end of 1905 by these companies was not less than 3,806, and the number of deaths since inauguration of the various funds was not less than 1,737.¹

CONVICT LABOR IN MASSACHUSETTS.

From the Twentieth Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Labor for 1905, which deals with the subject of Convict Labor in the United States, such facts as refer particularly to Convict Labor in Massachusetts have been selected for presentation in this article.

The fiscal year for the institutions covered by the report was one ending at varying dates during the latter part of the year 1903 and during the year 1904. It was not deemed advisable to adopt an identical fiscal year for each institution, inasmuch as the value of the material presented would not have been sufficiently increased thereby to justify the additional work.

No effort was made to secure data from any institution in which the value of the productive convict labor was less than \$1,000 during the year preceding the investigation. The facts presented below, so far as they relate to productive

¹ On January 5, 1907, the president of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway Co. announced the establishment of a pension system for that railroad, affecting nearly 30,000 employees.

labor performed by convicts in the penal institutions of Massachusetts, are, however, practically exhaustive.

For lack of space the complete returns by institutions presented in the United States report are not reproduced here, but a condensed table specifying the names of the 19 Massachusetts institutions investigated, together with the more important facts relative to convict labor employed therein, is presented:

NAMES OF INSTITUTIONS AND LOCATIONS.	NUMBER OF CONVICTS			NUMBER OF CONVICTS ENGAGED IN PRODUCTIVE LABOR			Number of In- dustrial Em- ployees (Not Con- victs)	Number of Con- tractors	Total Value of Goods Produced by Con- victs and Industrial Em- ployees	Value of Labor on Goods Produced by Con- victs and Industrial Em- ployees
	Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total				
Massachusetts Reforma- tory, Concord,	858	-	858	463	-	463	23	1	\$277,036	\$68,942
Reformatory Prison for Women, Sherborn,	-	210	210	-	94	94	16	-	52,979	15,272
Massachusetts State Farm, Bridgewater,	786	47	833	284	-	284	2	1	80,976	42,664
Massachusetts State Prison, Charlestown,	811	-	811	529	-	529	22	-	333,333	68,950
Berkshire County Jail and House of Correction, Pittsfield,	60	1	61	37	-	37	1	-	3,332	3,425
Bristol County Jail and House of Correction, New Bedford,	235	44	279	152	-	152	4	-	31,800	11,858
Essex County House of Correction, Ipswich,	37	4	41	6	-	6	1	-	1,923	1,049
Essex County Jail and House of Correction, Lawrence,	109	25	134	36	-	36	1	1	6,497	3,856
Essex County Jail and House of Correction, Salem,	122	13	135	35	-	35	-	1	11,250	3,750
Franklin County Jail and House of Correction, Greenfield,	24	1	25	19	-	19	2	1	4,800	2,925
Hampden County Jail and House of Correction, Springfield,	172	21	193	84	-	84	3	1	20,000	10,500
Hampshire County Jail and House of Correction, Northampton,	30	2	32	20	-	20	1	1	4,500	1,318
Middlesex County Jail and House of Correction, Cambridge,	284	32	316	60	-	60	8	-	22,192	14,375
Middlesex County Jail, Lowell,	87	19	106	24	-	24	1	-	16,882	3,856
Norfolk County Jail and House of Correction, Dedham,	68	5	73	42	-	42	2	-	5,993	5,600
Plymouth County Jail and House of Correction, Plymouth,	48	3	51	23	-	23	1	1	4,431	1,542
Suffolk County Jail and House of Correction, Deer Island,	1,141	254	1,395	469	12	481	7	-	112,292	54,784
Worcester County Jail and House of Correction, Fitchburg,	88	-	88	60	-	60	1	1	16,719	6,950
Worcester County Jail and House of Correction, Worcester,	255	20	275	45	-	45	3	1	16,000	4,627
TOTALS, . . .	5,215	701	5,916	2,388	106	2,494	99	10	\$1,022,935	\$326,243

Of the 19 institutions considered in the above table, four were under State control and 15 under county control. The total number of convicts in these institutions was 5,916, of which 5,215, or 88.2 per cent, were males, and 701, or 11.8 per cent, were females. Of the total number of convicts, 2,494, or 42.2 per cent, were engaged in productive labor, while 2,387, or 40.3 per cent, were engaged in prison duties, such as cooking, washing, and cleaning; 230, or 3.9 per cent, were ill; and 805, or 13.6 per cent, were idle because of lack of work or because they were purposely kept in confinement without labor. With respect to employment by sex, it may be noted that 45.8 per cent of the males,

as compared with 15.1 per cent of the females, were employed in productive labor. Women are more largely assigned to prison duties of a domestic nature. In fact, in only two out of the 16 institutions where women were confined was there any productive labor performed by them. These two institutions were the Reformatory Prison for Women at Sherborn and the Suffolk County Jail and House of Correction at Deer Island.

The largest number employed in productive labor at any institution was at the Massachusetts State Prison at Charlestown, where 529 convicts (all men) produced goods to the value of \$333,333, on which the labor value was \$68,950. The Suffolk County Jail and House of Correction at Deer Island ranks second, with 481 persons thus employed, showing \$112,292 worth of goods produced, on which the value of the labor was \$54,784. The Massachusetts Reformatory at Concord ranks third, with 463 persons thus employed, showing \$277,036 worth of goods produced, on which the labor value was \$68,942.

In the 19 institutions there were 99 employees (not convicts) who were also engaged in productive labor, but since this number is less than four per cent of the total number engaged in productive labor in these institutions, the value of the convict labor on the goods produced may be taken as fairly representative of the productivity of convict labor in this State.

The total value of all convict-made goods produced by 2,494 convicts in the 19 institutions during the year was \$1,022,935. The average value of the product per convict was therefore \$410.12. The value of labor on the goods produced was \$326,243, or \$130.81 per convict.

The system under which the convicts worked varied in the several institutions and even within the same institution, but in no case was convict labor performed under the "lease" system or the "contract system," nor were any convicts employed upon public works and ways, except within the particular institution in which they were imprisoned. The systems of work employed were the "piece-price," "public-account," and "State-use" systems. Under the piece-price system a contractor supplies the raw material and pays for the work of the convict by the piece or article produced, the prison officials usually supervising the work. In 10 institutions work was done under this system. Under the public-account system the State enters the field of manufacturing on its own account from the purchase of the raw material to the disposal of the finished product. This system was employed in 12 institutions. Under the State-use system the State produces the goods solely for its own consumption. This system was employed in 10 institutions. In four institutions all three systems were in vogue; both the public-account and State-use systems were employed in five institutions; the piece-price system alone prevailed in seven institutions; and the State-use system alone prevailed in three institutions.

The relative importance of the three systems under which convict labor is employed is shown in the following table:

SYSTEMS.	Number of Institutions	Value of Goods Produced	Value of Labor on Goods Produced	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CONVICTS EMPLOYED		
				Males	Females	Total
Public-account,	12	\$621,790	\$153,457	972.1	78.9	1,051.0
Piece-price,	10	115,529	50,893	489.0	-	489.0
State-use,	10	285,616	121,893	926.9	27.1	954.0
TOTALS,	19	\$1,022,935	\$326,243	2,388.0	106.0	2,494.0

Measured by the value of goods produced, the public-account system far out-ranks the other two systems, as 60.8 per cent of the convict-made goods was manufactured under this system.

A summary table showing the value and kinds of goods produced by convict labor and other facts relating thereto appears below:

INDUSTRIES.	Number of Institutions	Value of Goods Produced	Value of Labor on Goods Produced	Number of Convicts Employed	Number of Free Laborers Necessary to Perform Same Work	Value per Convict of Goods Produced
Blacksmithing and wheelwrighting,	1	\$1,985	\$964	4	1 5	496
Boots and shoes,	6	425,465	91,446	656	224 8	649
Boxes, paper,	1	8,892	2,432	34	8 5	262
Brooms and brushes,	2	35,370	16,558	80	40 3	442
Building trades,	1	1,900	964	4	1 5	475
Chairs, tables, etc.,	9	151,077	51,562	468	220 0	323
Clothing, etc.,	3	128,247	36,416	299	119 0	429
Cotton and woolen goods,	2	73,460	26,494	213	70 0	345
Cotton waste,	1	16,882	3,856	24	18 0	703
Farming,	7	88,961	51,376	369	152 0	241
Harness,	1	18,685	8,752	50	16 8	374
Hosiery, etc.,	1	5,134	1,864	30	7 0	171
Laundry work,	1	4,131	3,481	26	13 0	159
Mats and matting,	1	4,840	3,400	15	7 5	323
Printing,	1	5,469	2,784	13	4 3	421
Stone quarrying, cutting and crushing,	1	25,918	11,261	114	23 0	227
Trunks and valises,	1	6,519	2,133	11	4 5	593
Umbrellas,	1	20,000	10,500	84	35 0	238
TOTALS,	19	\$1,022,935	\$326,243	2,494	966 7	410

So far as value of product is concerned, the manufacturing of boots and shoes was the leading industry. The value of boots and shoes produced was \$425,465, or 41.6 per cent of the total convict product in all industries. The other leading industries in order of value of product are chairs, tables, etc., \$151,077; clothing, etc., \$128,247; farming, \$88,961; cotton and woolen goods, \$73,460; brooms and brushes, \$35,370. The five leading industries in order of number of convicts employed were boots and shoes, 656; chairs, tables, etc., 468; farming, 369; clothing, etc., 299; cotton and woolen goods, 213. In order of values produced per convict the five leading industries were cotton waste, with a product of \$703 per convict; boots and shoes, \$649; trunks and valises, \$593; blacksmithing and wheelwrighting, \$496; building trades, \$475.

In order to show to what extent convict-made goods were marketed outside the State the following condensed table is given. All goods sold were produced under the piece-price and public-account systems.

INDUSTRIES.	VALUE OF GOODS SOLD			PERCENTAGES OF GOODS SOLD	
	Within State	Outside State	Total	Within State	Outside State
Boots and shoes,	\$198,189	\$203,202	\$401,391	49 4	50 6
Chairs, tables, etc.,	144,776	6,300	151,076	95 8	4 2
Clothing, etc.,	74,067	—	74,067	100 0	—
Brooms and brushes,	27,305	2,400	29,705	91 9	8 1
Umbrellas,	—	20,000	20,000	—	100 0
Other products,	55,792	2,050	57,842	96 5	3 5
TOTALS,	\$500,129	\$233,952	\$734,081	68 1	31 9

Convict-made goods to the value of \$233,952, or 31.9 per cent of all the goods sold, were sold outside the State. Boots and shoes led in point of sale

with a total value of \$401,391, of which 50.6 per cent was sold outside the State. Of chairs, tables, etc., 4.2 per cent, and of brooms and brushes 8.1 per cent were sold outside the State. All clothing sold was sold within the State, and all umbrellas sold were sold outside the State.

The following table shows for five leading industries the value and disposition of goods made under the State-use system:

INDUSTRIES.	VALUE OF GOODS USED			PERCENTAGES OF GOODS USED	
	In Institution where Made	In Other Institutions	Total	In Institution where Made	In Other Institutions
Farming,	\$83,248	\$2,172	\$85,420	97.5	2.5
Cotton and woolen goods,	12,548	60,912	73,460	17.1	82.9
Clothing, etc.,	19,452	31,925	51,377	37.9	62.1
Boots and shoes,	5,334	18,740	24,074	22.2	77.8
Stone quarrying, cutting, and crushing,	-	20,612	20,612	-	100.0
Other products,	5,536	19,131	24,667	22.4	77.6
TOTALS,	\$126,118	153,492	\$279,610	45.1	54.9

The total value of goods produced for State use was \$279,610, of which 45.1 per cent was used in the institution where produced, and 54.9 was used in other institutions in the State. Farm products to the value of \$85,420 were raised, of which 97.5 per cent were used in the institution where raised. The percentages of other products used in the institution where produced were: Cotton and woolen goods, 17.1 per cent; clothing, 37.9 per cent; boots and shoes, 22.2 per cent. None of the products in the quarrying, cutting, and crushing industry were used at the Suffolk County Jail and House of Correction at Deer Island where they were produced.

A total of 41 comparisons of convict-made goods with similar goods produced by free labor was made in order to determine the relative quality of the convict-made product. No institution was reported as producing goods superior to those produced by free labor. Out of the 41 comparisons, the convict-made product was considered equal to the product of free labor in 20 cases, slightly inferior in 20 cases, and decidedly inferior in one case. The farm products, in the seven institutions where farming was engaged in, were considered equal to those of free labor. With the exception of a part of the product in one institution, the chairs, tables, etc., in the nine institutions where such product was made, were considered equal to the free labor product. In six institutions, where the boot and shoe industry was engaged in, the product in but one was equal to that of free labor; in four it was slightly inferior; and in one it was decidedly inferior. In all of the three institutions where clothing was made the product was reported as slightly inferior to the free labor product.

From the returns received from the 19 institutions investigated the receipts, disbursements, and valuation of prison property, have been compiled. It must be borne in mind that these statements do not include all of the penal and reformatory institutions in Massachusetts, but so far as the figures given relate to the value of industrial buildings or appliances and to receipts and disbursements for industrial purposes they are practically exhaustive, inasmuch as the United States report covers all institutions in which the value of convict labor was more than \$1,000 in a single year.

<i>Receipts.</i>		<i>Disbursements.</i>	
The State (for four institutions), . . .	\$607,387	Raw material for manufacture, . . .	\$613,057
The County (for 15 institutions), . . .	979,661	Non-industrial buildings, . . .	462,700
The United States, . . .	2,925	Non-industrial employees, . . .	458,231
Goods sold, . . .	778,163	Food, . . .	253,962
Contractors, . . .	20,648	Industrial employees, . . .	99,921
Sale of old machinery, . . .	1,657	Refund to State, . . .	87,635
The State for work done, . . .	708	Refund to County, . . .	61,305
All other sources (including \$2,498 deposits by convicts), . . .	33,165	Clothing, . . .	59,618
		Industrial machinery and tools, . . .	23,176
		Industrial buildings, . . .	20,499
		Land, . . .	3,494
		All other items (including \$2,474, return of deposits to convicts), . . .	280,692
TOTAL,	\$2,424,314	TOTAL,	\$2,424,290

The total value of prison property was \$9,323,070. The land, comprising 2,110.6 acres, was valued at \$1,460,810; the buildings (non-industrial at \$7,136,663 and industrial at \$580,200) at \$1,116,863; the machinery and tools at \$145,397.

The value of prison property (\$9,323,070) represented an average investment of \$1,576 per convict, as compared with a corresponding average investment of \$1,225 for the institutions of the United States covered by the report.

An endeavor was made to determine as nearly as possible the cost of maintenance per convict. For the 19 Massachusetts institutions the total appropriation (less refunds) per convict was \$243.58. The value per convict of food consumed in 15 institutions reporting was \$17.34; the value of clothing used per convict in four institutions was \$15.42, and the average expenditure per convict for non-industrial employees, such as guards, etc., was \$77.46, making a total of \$140.22 for the three items of food, clothing, and oversight. The value per convict of land occupied was \$246.93, and of non-industrial buildings occupied, \$1,206.33.

In only five States, Georgia, Louisiana, Missouri, North Carolina, and South Carolina, were convicts shown to be a source of profit to the State. By source of profit is meant the excess of the value of labor performed over the maintenance cost after conviction. In Massachusetts the appropriation (less refunds) in 1903-1904 was shown to be \$243.58 per convict. As the value of labor on goods produced per convict engaged in industrial labor was \$130.81, a net cost of \$112.77 per convict thus engaged remained to be made up from the appropriation. It may therefore be concluded that convicts in Massachusetts, even when engaged in industrial labor, pay, on the average, hardly more than one-half their cost of maintenance after conviction.

The commercial effect of the competition of convict-made goods with similar goods made by free labor is of interest particularly to the manufacturer and to free labor. In Massachusetts, the products made by convict labor within the State do not enter largely into competition with similar products of free labor. But the products of convict labor in other States, particularly boots and shoes, chairs, tables, etc., and brooms and brushes, do enter largely into competition with similar products manufactured by free labor in this State.

With reference to boots and shoes a Massachusetts manufacturer made the following statement:

We make a plain working shoe, the wholesale price being \$1 to \$1.10, with about 10 cents margin. Messrs. of formerly were exclusive jobbers in the Boston market to the extent of a million dollars annually and

bought heavily of me. The Tennessee prisons now make the same grade of goods, and the jobber has ceased to purchase in the Boston market, buying instead the prison shoes. In order to compete at the same price as the prison, the manufacturer has to use a cheaper grade of material than the prisons and put a better finish on the shoe. On their semi-annual visit to the Boston market jobbers from the South (where most of this class of goods is sold) repeatedly have stated that they can do better by purchasing from the Baltimore and other prison contractors.

The following is quoted from a statement made by another Massachusetts manufacturer with reference to chairs, tables, etc.:

In a general way, would say that in several departments of our business we are subjected to competition from this source, which restricts and hampers our operations greatly. This will apply particularly to our lines of reed furniture, children's carriages and go-carts, wood and cane seat chairs, and cocoa mats and mattings.

There is, perhaps, scarcely another corporation or firm in the entire country conducting a business of such diversity as ours which is so hampered. Because of competition from the institutions employing convict labor, in Pennsylvania and Maryland, our mat and matting business has been conducted at a serious loss for several years, and we are only hanging on in hopes that something will develop in the near future to justify our continuance in the business. Otherwise, we must abandon it absolutely within a comparatively short time. Within a few days we have been obliged to make such reductions to our largest customer for reed furniture to meet the competition of contractors employing convict labor in the State of Michigan that there will be nothing in it for us unless we can still further reduce our prices for labor, and this it will be very difficult for us to do, as our employees in that department are already poorly paid, as the result of our efforts to stay in the business and compete with this objectionable competition.

Four statements made by Massachusetts manufacturers relative to competition in the manufacture of brooms and brushes are quoted in part as follows:

(a.) As to the effect of prison competition on our business, I beg leave to say that it is the very worst evil connected with our business. It makes competition so fierce that we are practically shut out from manufacturing a great many styles of brushes that otherwise could be sold in the market at a fair margin of profit. . . .

The class of trade which I make a specialty of handling uses a great many of such brushes as are made by the prisons, and I am forced to make them in order to sell my other goods, and in many instances I have to put them in at cost on account of the prison competition.

At the present time I am manufacturing an average of about 2,000 brushes per day of this particular kind of goods, and most of these I have to sell in small quantities to the small dealers in order to get any profit on them whatever, but if it were not for the prison competition I fully believe that I could increase my output at least four times as much, and at a fair margin of profit.

(b.) We . . . make some lines of cheap fiber whitewash brushes similar to prison goods, of same class, and on that class of goods we are forced to sell at a small nominal profit, or sometimes at prices below cost to make sales in competition with, especially Ohio, prison competition.

We sell many of our customers, who are dealers, their entire assortment of brushes, and also furnish them the cheap whitewash brushes in the way mentioned at sacrifice prices rather than oblige them to buy a few articles outside. We do not wish to give any customer an excuse for buying a portion of his brushes elsewhere,

and therefore sell in the manner named. They make parallel lines of cheap white-wash (brushes) which they sell at much less than we can. While the finish of articles is not as nice as ours, the wearing qualities are the same.

We were some years ago active in getting the laws of our own State and New York State changed so as to allow brush manufacturers to regain their business, which had been practically wrecked by prison competition.

(c.) We were formerly manufacturers of the cheap grade of scrubbing and shoe brushes similar to those made in prisons, but have been purchasers of prison goods for many years and up to the present, the prison contractors offering and selling their goods at lower prices than outside manufacturers can make them for.

(d.) The prisons that are my worst competitors now are the Maine prison and the penitentiary in Maryland. I formerly had a large trade with a very large Boston grocery house, which has about 100 retail stores having an annual sale of about 1,000 dozen brooms per year, but have been unable to sell them during the last six months owing to the fact that the purchased brooms are made by the Baltimore prison.

In other industries in which convict labor is employed no special objections to competition were recorded by Massachusetts manufacturers. Following the statistical data in the United States report under review is printed a compilation of the laws and amendments relating to State and county convicts enacted by the various legislatures up to and including the regular sessions of 1905. The Massachusetts laws there printed in full may be found in the Revised Laws of Massachusetts — 1902, Chapters 30, 220, 222, 224, and 225, and in the Acts of Massachusetts — 1904, Chapter 243.¹ Practically all of the regulations affecting the labor of State convicts are found in Chapter 225 of the Revised Laws — 1902, Sections 26, 29, 43–50, 52, 54, and 55, while Sections 37, 59, and 61 of the same chapter refer particularly to the labor of county convicts.

THE PRESIDENT ON LABOR MATTERS.

The annual message of President Roosevelt, delivered to the second session of the Fifty-ninth Congress on December 4, 1906, contained the following matter relative to subjects of current interest to the workingman and to the employer of labor:

Injunctions.

In my last message I suggested the enactment of a law in connection with the issuance of injunctions, attention having been sharply drawn to the matter by the demand that the right of applying injunctions in labor cases should be wholly abolished. It is at least doubtful whether a law abolishing altogether the use of injunctions in such cases would stand the test of the courts; in which case of course the legislation would be ineffective. Moreover, I believe it would be wrong altogether to prohibit the use of injunctions. It is criminal to permit sympathy for criminals to weaken our hands in upholding the law; and if men seek to destroy life or property by mob violence there should be no impairment

of the power of the courts to deal with them in the most summary and effective way possible. But so far as possible the abuse of the power should be provided against by some such law as I advocated last year.

In this matter of injunctions there is lodged in the hands of the judiciary a necessary power which is nevertheless subject to the possibility of grave abuse. It is a power that should be exercised with extreme care and should be subject to the jealous scrutiny of all men, and condemnation should be meted out as much to the judge who fails to use it boldly when necessary as to the judge who uses it wantonly or oppressively. Of course, a judge strong enough to be fit for his office will enjoin any resort to violence

¹ See also Chapter 244, Acts of 1905, which amends Section 29 of Chapter 225 of the Revised Laws.

or intimidation, especially by conspiracy, no matter what his opinion may be of the rights of the original quarrel. There must be no hesitation in dealing with disorder. But there must likewise be no such abuse of the injunctive power as is implied in forbidding laboring men to strive for their own betterment in peaceful and lawful ways; nor must the injunction be used merely to aid some big corporation in carrying out schemes for its own aggrandizement. It must be remembered that a preliminary injunction in a labor case, if granted without adequate proof (even when authority can be found to support the conclusions of law on which it is founded), may often settle the dispute between the parties; and therefore if improperly granted may do irreparable wrong. Yet there are many judges who assume a matter-of-course granting of a preliminary injunction to be the ordinary and proper judicial disposition of such cases; and there have undoubtedly been flagrant wrongs committed by judges in connection with labor disputes even within the last few years, altho I think much less often than in former years. Such judges by their unwise action immensely strengthen the hands of those who are striving entirely to do away with the power of injunction; and therefore such careless use of the injunctive process tends to threaten its very existence, for if the American people ever become convinced that this process is habitually abused, whether in matters affecting labor or in matters affecting corporations, it will be well-nigh impossible to prevent its abolition.

It may be the highest duty of a judge at any given moment to disregard, not merely the wishes of individuals of great political or financial power, but the overwhelming tide of public sentiment; and the judge who does thus disregard public sentiment when it is wrong, who brushes aside the plea of any special interest when the pleading is not founded on righteousness, performs the highest service to the country. Such a judge is deserving of all honor; and all honor cannot be paid to this wise and fearless judge if we permit the growth of an absurd convention which would forbid any criticism of the judge of another type, who shows himself timid in the presence of arrogant disorder, or who on insufficient grounds grants an injunction that does grave injustice, or who in his capacity as a construer, and therefore in part a maker, of the law, in flagrant fashion thwarts the cause of decent government. The judge has a power over which no review can be exercised: he himself sits in review upon the acts of both the executive and legislative branches of the Government; save in the most extraordinary cases he is amenable only at the bar of public opinion; and it is unwise to maintain that public opinion in reference to a man with such power shall neither be expressed nor led.

There is one consideration which should be taken into account by the good people who carry a sound proposition to an excess in objecting to any criticism of a judge's decision. The instinct of the American people as a whole is sound in this matter. They will not subscribe to the doctrine that any public servant is to be above all criticism. If the best citizens, those most competent to express their judgment in such matters, and, above all, those belonging to the great and

honorable profession of the bar, so profoundly influential in American life, take the position that there shall be no criticism of a judge under any circumstances, their view will not be accepted by the American people as a whole. In such event the people will turn to and tend to accept as justifiable the intemperate and improper criticism uttered by unworthy agitators. Surely it is a misfortune to leave to such critics a function, right in itself, which they are certain to abuse. Just and temperate criticism, when necessary, is a safeguard against the acceptance by the people as a whole of that intemperate antagonism towards the judiciary which must be combated by every right-thinking man, and which, if it became widespread among the people at large, would constitute a dire menace to the Republic.

Duty for the Plain People.

The plain people who think — the mechanics, farmers, merchants, workers with head or hand, the men to whom American traditions are dear, who love their country and try to act decently by their neighbors, owe it to themselves to remember that the most damaging blow that can be given popular government is to elect an unworthy and sinister agitator on a platform of violence and hypocrisy. Whenever such an issue is raised in this country nothing can be gained by finching from it, for in such case democracy is itself on trial, popular self-government under republican forms is itself on trial. The triumph of the mob is just as evil a thing as the triumph of the plutocracy, and to have escaped one danger avails nothing whatever if we succumb to the other. In the end the honest man, whether rich or poor, who earns his own living and tries to deal justly by his fellows, has as much to fear from the insincere and unworthy demagog promising much and performing nothing, or else performing nothing but evil, who would set on the mob to plunder the rich, as from the crafty corruptionist, who, for his own ends, would permit the common people to be exploited by the very wealthy. If we ever let this Government fall into the hands of men of either of these two classes we shall show ourselves false to America's past. Moreover, the demagog and the corruptionist often work hand in hand. There are at this moment wealthy reactionaries of such obtuse morality that they regard the public servant who prosecutes them when they violate the law, or who seeks to make them bear their proper share of the public burdens, as being even more objectionable than the violent agitator who hounds on the mob to plunder the rich. There is nothing to choose between such a reactionary and such an agitator; fundamentally they are alike in their selfish disregard of the rights of others; and it is natural that they should join in opposition to any movement of which the aim is fearlessly to do exact and even justice to all.

Railroad Employees' Hours and Eight-hour Law.

I call your attention to the need of passing the bill limiting the number of hours of employment of railroad employees. The measure is a very moderate one and I can conceive of no serious objection to it. Indeed, so far as it is in our

power, it should be our aim steadily to reduce the number of hours of labor, with as a goal the general introduction of an eight-hour day. There are industries in which it is not possible that the hours of labor should be reduced; just as there are communities not far enough advanced for such a movement to be for their good, or, if in the Tropics, so situated that there is no analogy between their needs and ours in this matter. On the Isthmus of Panama, for instance, the conditions are in every way so different from what they are here that an eight-hour day would be absurd; just as it is absurd, so far as the Isthmus is concerned, where white labor cannot be employed, to bother as to whether the necessary work is done by alien black men or by alien yellow men. But the wage workers of the United States are of so high a grade that alike from the merely industrial standpoint and from the civic standpoint it should be our object to do what we can in the direction of securing the general observance of an eight-hour day. Until recently the eight-hour law on our Federal statute books has been very scantily observed. Now, however, largely thru the instrumentality of the Bureau of Labor, it is being rigidly enforced, and I shall speedily be able to say whether or not there is need of further legislation in reference thereto; for our purpose is to see it obeyed in spirit no less than in letter. Half holidays during summer should be established for Government employees; it is as desirable for wage workers who toil with their hands as for salaried officials whose labor is mental that there should be a reasonable amount of holiday.

Labor of Women and Children.

The Congress at its last session wisely provided for a truant court for the District of Columbia; a marked step in advance on the path of properly caring for the children. Let me again urge that the Congress provide for a thoro investigation of the conditions of child labor and of the labor of women in the United States. More and more our people are growing to recognize the fact that the questions which are not merely of industrial but of social importance outweigh all others; and these two questions most emphatically come in the category of those which affect in the most far-reaching way the home life of the Nation. The horrors incident to the employment of young children in factories or at work anywhere are a blot on our civilization. It is true that each State must ultimately settle the question in its own way; but a thoro official investigation of the matter, with the results published broadcast, would greatly help toward arousing the public conscience and securing unity of State action in the matter. There is, however, one law on the subject which should be enacted immediately, because there is no need for an investigation in reference thereto, and the failure to enact it is discreditable to the National Government. A drastic and thoroughgoing child-labor law should be enacted for the District of Columbia and the Territories.

Employers' Liability.

Among the excellent laws which the Congress past at the last session was an employers' liability law. It was a marked step in advance to

get the recognition of employers' liability on the statute books; but the law did not go far enough. In spite of all precautions exercised by employers there are unavoidable accidents and even deaths involved in nearly every line of business connected with the mechanic arts. This inevitable sacrifice of life may be reduced to a minimum, but it can not be completely eliminated. It is a great social injustice to compel the employee, or rather the family of the killed or disabled victim, to bear the entire burden of such an inevitable sacrifice. In other words, society shirks its duty by laying the whole cost on the victim, whereas the injury comes from what may be called the legitimate risks of the trade. Compensation for accidents or deaths due in any line of industry to the actual conditions under which that industry is carried on, should be paid by that portion of the community for the benefit of which the industry is carried on—that is, by those who profit by the industry. If the entire trade risk is placed upon the employer he will promptly and properly add it to the legitimate cost of production and assess it proportionately upon the consumers of his commodity. It is therefore clear to my mind that the law should place this entire "risk of a trade" upon the employer. Neither the Federal law, nor, as far as I am informed, the State laws dealing with the question of employers' liability are sufficiently thoroughgoing. The Federal law should, of course, include employees in navy yards, arsenals, and the like.

Investigation of Disputes between Capital and Labor.

The commission appointed by the President October 16, 1902, at the request of both the anthracite coal operators and miners, to inquire into, consider, and pass upon the questions in controversy in connection with the strike in the anthracite regions of Pennsylvania and the causes out of which the controversy rose, in their report, findings, and award express the belief "that the State and Federal Governments should provide the machinery for what may be called the compulsory investigation of controversies between employers and employees when they arise." This expression of belief is deserving of the favorable consideration of the Congress and the enactment of its provisions into law. A bill has already been introduced to this end. Records show that during the twenty years from January 1, 1881, to December 31, 1900, there were strikes affecting 117,509 establishments, and 6,105,694 employees were thrown out of employment. During the same period there were 1,005 lockouts, involving nearly 10,000 establishments, throwing over one million people out of employment. The strikes and lockouts involved an estimated loss to employees of \$307,000,000 and to employers of \$143,000,000, a total of \$450,000,000. The public suffered directly and indirectly probably as great additional loss. But the money loss, great as it was, did not measure the anguish and suffering endured by the wives and children of employees whose pay stopt when their work stopt, or the disastrous effect of the strike or lockout upon the business of employers, or the increase in the cost of products and the inconvenience and loss to the public. Many of these strikes and lockouts would not have oc-

curred had the parties to the dispute been required to appear before an unprejudiced body representing the nation and, face to face, state the reasons for their contention. In most instances the dispute would doubtless be found to be due to a misunderstanding by each of the other's rights, aggravated by an unwillingness of either party to accept as true the statements of the other as to the justice or injustice of the matters in dispute. The exercise of a judicial spirit by a disinterested body representing the Federal Government, such as would be provided by a commission on conciliation and arbitration would tend to create an atmosphere of friendliness and conciliation between contending parties; and the giving each side an equal opportunity to present fully its case in the presence of the other would prevent many disputes from developing into serious strikes or lockouts, and, in other cases, would enable the commission to persuade the opposing parties to come to terms.

In this age of great corporate and labor combinations, neither employers nor employees should be left completely at the mercy of the stronger party to a dispute, regardless of the righteousness of their respective claims. The proposed measure would be in the line of securing recognition of the fact that in many strikes the public has itself an interest which can not wisely be disregarded; an interest not merely of general convenience, for the question of a just and proper public policy must also be considered. In all legislation of this kind it is well to advance cautiously, testing each step by the actual results; the step proposed can surely be safely taken, for the decisions of the commission would not bind the parties in legal fashion, and yet would give a chance for public opinion to crystallize and thus to exert its full force for the right.

Technical and Industrial Training.

It would be impossible to overstate (tho it is of course difficult quantitatively to measure) the effect upon a nation's growth to greatness of what may be called organized patriotism, which necessarily includes the substitution of a national feeling for mere local pride; with as a resultant a high ambition for the whole country. No country can develop its full strength so long as the parts which make up the whole each put a feeling of loyalty to the part above the feeling of loyalty to the whole. This is true of sections and it is just as true of classes. The industrial and agricultural classes must work together, capitalists and wage workers must work together, if the best work of which the country is capable is to be done. It is probable that a thoroly efficient system of education comes next to the influence of patriotism in bringing about national success of this kind. Our federal form of government, so fruitful of advantage to our people in certain ways, in other ways undoubtedly limits our national effectiveness. It is not possible, for instance, for the National Government to take the lead in technical industrial education, to see

that the public school system of this country develops on all its technical, industrial, scientific, and commercial sides. This must be left primarily to the several States. Nevertheless, the National Government has control of the schools of the District of Columbia, and it should see that these schools promote and encourage the fullest development of the scholars in both commercial and industrial training. The commercial training should in one of its branches deal with foreign trade. The industrial training is even more important. It should be one of our prime objects as a Nation, so far as feasible, constantly to work toward putting the mechanic, the wage worker who works with his hands, on a higher plane of efficiency and reward, so as to increase his effectiveness in the economic world, and the dignity, the remuneration, and the power of his position in the social world. Unfortunately, at present the effect of some of the work in the public schools is in the exactly opposite direction. If boys and girls are trained merely in literary accomplishments, to the total exclusion of industrial, manual and technical training, the tendency is to unfit them for industrial work and to make them reluctant to go into it, or unfitted to do well if they do go into it. This is a tendency which should be strenuously combated. Our industrial development depends largely upon technical education, including in this term all industrial education, from that which fits a man to be a good mechanic, a good carpenter, or blacksmith, to that which fits a man to do the greatest engineering feat. The skilled mechanic, the skilled workman, can best become such by technical industrial education. The far-reaching usefulness of institutes of technology and schools of mines or of engineering, is now universally acknowledged, and no less far-reaching is the effect of a good building or mechanical trades school, a textile, or watchmaking, or engraving school. All such training must develop not only manual dexterity but industrial intelligence. In international rivalry this country does not have to fear the competition of pauper labor as much as it has to fear the educated labor of specially trained competitors; and we should have the education of the hand, eye, and brain which will fit us to meet such competition.

In every possible way we should help the wage worker who toils with his hands and who must (we hope in a constantly increasing measure) also toil with his brain. Under the Constitution the National Legislature can do but little of direct importance for his welfare save where he is engaged in work which permits it to act under the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution; and this is one reason why I so earnestly hope that both the legislative and judicial branches of the Government will construe this clause of the Constitution in the broadest possible manner. We can, however, in such a matter as industrial training, in such a matter as child labor and factory laws, set an example to the States by enacting the most advanced legislation that can wisely be enacted for the District of Columbia.

TRADE UNION NOTES.

[This section is intended to record, as far as possible, matters of current information regarding trade unions, particularly those of Massachusetts, and those internationals with which the local unions are affiliated.]

Declaration of Principles of the American Federation of Labor.

At the Twenty-sixth Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor held at Minneapolis, Minn., in November, 1906, action was taken on the proposed declaration of principles drawn up for the Federation by the resolutions committee. These were indorsed after two amendments relative to involuntary servitude and the initiative and referendum had been incorporated. This is the declaration:

In furtherance of our claims, namely, that our principles comprise the fullest and highest scope of human activity, and from time to time will be enhanced and advanced in accordance with the demands to satisfy human needs and desires, we recommend the following as a partial statement at this time of the economic demands of the American Federation of Labor:

Free schools, free text-books, and compulsory education.

Abolition of all forms of involuntary servitude, except for punishment of crime.

Unrelenting protest against the issuance and abuse of injunction process in labor disputes.

A workday of not more than eight hours in the twenty-four hours of the day.

A strict recognition of not over eight hours per day on all Federal, State or municipal work and at not less than the prevailing per diem wage rate of class of employment in the vicinity where the work is performed.

Release from employment one day in seven.

The abolition of the contract system on public work.

The municipal ownership of public utilities.

The abolition of the sweat shop system.

Sanitary inspection of factory, workshop, mine and home.

Liability of employers for injury to body or loss of life.

The nationalization of telegraph and telephone.

The passage of anti-child labor laws in States where they do not exist and rigid defence of them where they have been enacted into law.

Woman suffrage coequal with man suffrage.

Initiative, referendum, imperative mandate and right of recall.

Suitable and plentiful playgrounds for children in all cities.

Continued agitation for the public bath system in all cities.

Qualifications in permits to build of all cities and towns that there shall be bath-room and bath-room attachments in all houses or compartments used for habitation.

We favor a system of finance whereby money shall be issued exclusively by the Government with such regulations and restrictions as will protect it from manipulation by the banking interests for their own private gain.

Unions Affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The following table shows the number of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor by charter, on September 30, 1905, and September 30, 1906.

UNIONS.	NUMBER OF UNIONS AFFILIATED IN —	
	1905	1906
International unions,	118	119
State federations,	33	36
Central labor bodies,	599	588
Local trade and federal labor unions,	1,046	759
TOTALS,	1,796	1,452

Benefits Paid by the Cigarmakers' International Union.

From an official statement of the benefits paid by the Cigarmakers' International Union of America during twenty-six years (1879-1905) the following facts have been obtained. During this period the union has loaned the traveling members \$991,777.98, and has paid out \$1,092,194.15 in strike benefits, \$2,201,266.43 as sick benefits, \$1,514,525.99 as death benefits, and \$1,045,866.11 as out-of-work benefits, making a grand total of benefits paid in 26 years and two months of \$6,815,540.66. At the close of the fiscal year 1905 there remained an aggregate balance in the several funds of \$688,679.13, a balance larger than that in previous years. The membership in 1905 consisted of three classes showing the number of members as follows: 30 cent contributing members, 40,075; 15 cent dues paying members, 1,312; 20 cent beneficiary retiring card holders, 4,297, making a total membership of 45,684. The total membership showed a slight falling off in 1905 as compared with 1904, but was greater than that in any other year, except 1904. The number of 20 cent beneficiary retiring card holders in 1905 was larger than in any previous year. The total benefits paid during the year 1905 were \$420,019.88, distributed as follows: Loans to

traveling members, \$55,293.93; strike benefits, \$9,820.83; sick benefits, \$165,917.80; death benefits, \$162,818.82; out-of-work benefits, \$35,168.50. The total cost per member in 1905 on account of these benefit funds was \$8.42, of which 24 cents was for strike benefits, \$3.74 for sick benefits, \$3.56 for death benefits, and 88 cents for out-of-work benefits. — *Piano Workers' Journal*, June, 1906.

Convention of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America.

The Fourteenth Biennial Convention of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America was held in Niagara Falls, N. Y., from September 17 to 28, 1906. The attendance was the largest in the history of the Brotherhood, 578 delegates being present.

The convention opened with addresses of welcome and responses, followed by reports of various officers and committees and routine business which occupied the first four days of the convention. The President in his report reviewed the work of the organization during the two years since the last convention. He spoke of the New York lockout which had been settled expeditiously and in a businesslike manner; the unsuccessful conferences held with the Society of Carpenters and the Amalgamated Wood Workers for the purpose of accomplishing a federation of all three bodies; the progress made in organizing woodworking mills; the steps taken to compel government officials to observe the eight-hour law as applied to government work; the establishment of more friendly relationships with the A. F. of L., resulting in the choosing of a member of the Brotherhood as member of the Executive Council of the Federation; the affiliation with the National Structural Building Trades Alliance, thus making possible concerted action of the two bodies in building trades disputes; the progress shown in introducing the union label; the fruitful work of organizers, and other important matters affecting the growth and welfare of the organization.

The secretary stated in his report that on June 30, 1906, there were 1,748 local unions connected with the organization, having a total membership of 170,192 in good standing. During the two years previous there had been a gain in membership of 8,987 but a loss of 45 local unions, which loss was accounted for by the consolidation of the local unions in 32 cities.

Since the establishment of benevolent features by the Brotherhood in 1882, the sum of \$1,800,000 had been paid by local unions to sick members, while the general office had expended \$1,512,343 as death and disability benefits. Fewer strikes were recorded in the two years considered than in the previous two years.

The Treasurer's report showed that the balance in the treasury June 30, 1906, amounted to \$199,294.45, a gain of \$27,258.17 in two years. During this two-year period the sum of \$380,071.44 had been paid out for death and disability benefits, and the expenses of maintaining strikes and lockouts had amounted to \$127,813.42.

The General Executive Board reported that during the two years 260 trade movements had been considered, of which all but 29 had been

sanctioned; 79 appeals for aid had been received, and the amount of \$80,688.25 had been appropriated in 60 of these cases for the support of members involved in strikes and lockouts.

Among the resolutions adopted by the convention the following were the more important:

Approving more widespread advertisement of the union label; urging local unions to affiliate with the National Structural Building Trades Alliance; endorsing the Jamestown Exposition to be held in 1907; and protesting against the diversion of the waters of Niagara River for manufacturing purposes and the consequent destruction of the Falls.

The convention recommended 71 amendments to the General Constitution and submitted them to the locals for referendum vote. In no instance, however, will the amendments, if passed, radically affect the tenor of the existing constitution. A platform relating to municipal, State, and national issues was also recommended, to be incorporated in the constitution if adopted on referendum vote.

The next convention of the Brotherhood will be held in Salt Lake City, Utah, in 1908. — *The Carpenter*, October and November, 1906.

Convention of the Wood, Wire, and Metal Lathers International Union.

The Eighth Annual Convention of the Wood, Wire, and Metal Lathers International Union was held at Toronto, Canada, October 1-6, 1906. The President in his report called attention to the encouraging growth of the organization and the effective work of the organizers. He stated that there had been only five strikes of any considerable duration during the year. Of these strikes, three were soon settled by the local unions entering into agreements directly with the employers. [The Lynn, Mass., strike was satisfactorily settled after three months, while the New York strike still continued.] ¹ Among other matters, he spoke of the settlement of certain jurisdiction disputes, particularly that with the United Brotherhood of Carpenters concluded by the granting to lathers full jurisdiction over plasterboard work.

The Secretary-Treasurer reported that 219 active locals were affiliated with the international, showing a net increase of 48 locals during the year. The total membership had increased approximately 1,800. The financial report showed total receipts for the year amounting to \$18,877 and expenditures of \$16,539. During the year 40 death claims amounting to \$3,700 had been paid.

Among the resolutions passed the following were the most important: That the appointment of a general organizer be left entirely to the general president; that the international should prescribe the length of time a person should be a member and the fee he must pay before being granted the privilege of contracting; that no card should be issued to any member who was not able to perform a definite amount of work in a day; that locals be allowed to grant members the privilege of working at a wage scale commensurate with their ability until they might be competent to demand full wages on metal work; that loss lathers should not be admitted to mem-

¹ From Secretary-Treasurer's Report.

bership in locals having 25 or more members; and that the convention should go on record as opposed to local unions holding meetings in halls connected directly with saloons. The convention considered withdrawal from affiliation with the National Building Trades Council, but finally decided to continue affiliation for another year.

The next convention will be held in Chicago, in October, 1907. — *The Lather, November, 1906.*

The British Trades Union Congress.

The Thirty-ninth Annual Congress of the Trades Unions of the United Kingdom was held in St. George's Hall, Liverpool, on Monday, September 3-8, 1906. The Congress was presided over by the Chairman of the Parliamentary Committee, Mr. D. C. Cummings, General Secretary of the Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society. The standing orders of the Congress provide that it shall consist only of representatives of trade unions who are actually working at their trades at the time of their appointment, or are permanent paid officials of the unions they represent. Trade unions may send one delegate for every 2,000 members or fraction thereof, but many of the larger unions do not send the full number of delegates to which they are entitled. Voting on important questions is by card, on the principle of one vote for every 1,000 members represented.

Allowing for the number of distinct societies included in Federations and also sending delegates of their own, members of about 226 separate trade unions attended Congress as delegates this year out of a total of about 1,148 unions in existence. The membership represented, however, comprised nearly 80 per cent

of the total membership of all trade unions. The number of organizations represented this year was 11 more than in 1905, and the total membership was greater by 14,587.

Among the principal industrial subjects on which the Congress passed resolutions were: Restriction of the hours of labor to eight a day for miners and workpeople generally; amendment of the law in relation to trade unions and industrial disputes; amendment of the Mines Regulation Act, the Factory and Workshop Acts, the Shop Clubs Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act, and the Truck Act; certificates of competency for persons in charge of steam engines and boilers; nationalization of mines, railways, and canals; abolition of systematic overtime; compulsory State insurance; improved housing of working classes; old-age pensions; wages and general conditions of labor of Government and municipal employees; representation of trade unions at Board of Trade and coroners' inquiries; prohibition of importation of alien labor in case of strikes; the use of a trade union label on manufactured articles; cheap traveling fares for workpeople; prevention of evictions of workpeople by employers in cases of strikes; and danger of employment of foreigners in British mines.

Delegates representing the American Federation of Labor of the United States, the Co-operative Union, the General Federation of Trade Unions, and the Labor Party attended the Congress and delivered addresses. Two British delegates were elected to attend the Annual Conference of the American Federation of Labor. — *Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London, England, September, 1906.*

RECENT COURT DECISIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Trade Union Sick Benefits.—In the recent English case of *Burke v. B. Amalgamated Society of Dyers*, 75 L. J. K. B. 533, the Court held that where, in accordance with a rule in that behalf, a rule of a trade union is altered during the insanity of a member who joined the society while of sound mind, the alteration of the rule is valid as against that member, although he is prejudiced thereby.

Constitutionality of Fellow-servant Law.—The Supreme Court of Colorado held in the recent case of *Vindicator Consolidated Gold Mining Co. v. Firstbrook*, 86 Pac. 313, that the Fellow-servant Act (Session Laws 1901, p. 161) rendering employers liable for damages resulting from injuries to or death of an employee caused by the negligence of a co-employee in the same manner and to the same extent as if the negligence causing the injuries or death was that of the employer, was not unconstitutional, as depriving employers of their property without due process of law.

Employment of Child in Factory.—In the recent English case of *Stevenson v. Goldstran*,

75 L. J. K. B. 565, it was held that where the by-laws made by the school authority of a district apply to children between 13 and 14 years of age and make no provision for total exemption from the obligation to attend school upon a child obtaining a certificate of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school, a child of the age of 13 who has obtained such a certificate cannot lawfully be employed full time in a factory or workshop, notwithstanding the provisions of Sec. 71 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901. A child of the age of 12 who has obtained a certificate of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school may, by virtue of the provisions of Sec. 68 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, lawfully be employed as a half-timer in a factory or workshop, although the by-laws of the school authority make no provision for the partial exemption of children from the obligation to attend school.

The Right to Work.—Recorder Goff, of New York, in passing sentence upon Frank Hawkins, a striking ironworker, convicted of having attacked and beaten a strike breaker, said in part:

"The law gives to you and to every workingman the right to organize for the betterment of your condition; the right to sell your labor to the highest bidder; the right to refuse to work for any one that you do not like; the right to withhold your work except on conditions that are agreeable to you. The law even goes so far as to extend to you the right to persuade other men to adopt the same course, but when men representing organized labor step over the very broad and generous provisions of the law and use violence as an argument to enforce their views upon their fellowmen, then the law is violated, and not only the rights of the individual are trampled upon, but the peace and safety of the community are in danger. I think every true friend of the workingman and every honest and sincere workingman must feel regret every time a man connected with a labor organization takes the law into his own hands and commits acts of violence."

Agreements between Employers' Associations and Trade Unions.—In the recent case of National Fireproofing Co. v. Mason Builders' Association of the city of New York, 145 Fed. 260, the United States Circuit Court, S. D. New York, held that a trade agreement between a mason builders' association and bricklayers' union, by which the members of the association agree to include in their contracts for building all interior brick and mason work, such as the installation of fireproofing, etc., that they will not sublet such interior work, but will have it done by their own workmen, giving preference to those employed in the construction of the walls, so as to give them the easier and safer part of the work as well as the more exposed and dangerous, and enable them to more nearly make full time in bad weather, and which binds the members of the unions to work only for contractors who comply with such requirements, is not in itself unlawful, and when made in good faith, solely for the mutual benefit of the parties concerned, and not for the purpose of creating a monopoly or preventing others from obtaining contracts and employing workmen on the same terms, is not in violation of any rights of one who desires to take separate contracts for fireproofing to be installed by his own men employed for that work alone. Motion for a preliminary injunction was denied.

Unincorporated Associations — Constitutional Law.—In the recent case of F. R. Patch Mfg. Co. v. Capeless et al.,¹ 63 Atl. 938, before the Supreme Court of Vermont, it appeared that in November, 1902, plaintiff brought action in Rutland County Court against Protection Lodge No. 215, International Association of Machinists, in its associate name, by serving process on its president as authorized by § 1099, Vt. St., Protection Lodge being an unincorporated association consisting of five or more persons; a trial was had in said action at the March term, 1903, of that Court, and a verdict for damages recovered in favor of plaintiff and against Protection Lodge and judgment had thereon, which judgment was thereafter affirmed in the Supreme Court; that execution was issued on the judgment against the property of Protection

Lodge, and that thereafter the same was returned wholly unsatisfied. Section 1183, Vt. St., provides that in such a case a suit for the amount unpaid may be brought against any or all of the associates upon their "original liability." The Court held that: (1) an action under § 1183 is statutory, and not based upon the same cause of action as that upon which the judgment was obtained; (2) a judgment against an unincorporated association under § 1099 is conclusive against all persons who were members when the liability merged in the judgment was created, but persons whose membership had then ceased, or did not commence until subsequent thereto, were not responsible in supplemental proceedings, under § 1183; (3) § 1099 providing for a judgment binding all the members of an unincorporated association after service on an officer is not violative of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution as a taking of property without due process of law; (4) an action under § 1183 against the associates of an unincorporated association may be brought by trustee process.

Criminal Law — Conspiracy.—The Supreme Court of Vermont in the recent case of State v. Duncan, 63 Atl. 225, upheld the indictment returned against James Duncan, international secretary of the Granite Cutters Union, and 10 Hardwick stonecutters, all charged with conspiracy. Duncan interposed a plea alleging that in obedience to a subpoena, and not knowing that the charges involved in the indictment were being investigated, he appeared before the grand jury and was compelled to give incriminating testimony, and that he did not know that he was charged with any crime and was not warned or advised of his privilege. The Court held that the plea was insufficient, in that the allegation as to compulsion was a mere conclusion, that it did not appear that it had been ascertained that a crime had been committed at the time the testimony was given, or that accused was in custody or even suspected of the crime. The Court also held that as the indictment charged conspiracy to prevent, hinder, and deter several persons named by violence, threats, and intimidation from continuing in the business of manufacturing granite, it charged a conspiracy to do an act unlawful at common law with requisite certainty.

By the decision of the Court, the testimony of five of the cutters before the Caledonia grand jury may be used against them in the trial.

About a year ago, 10 members of the Granite Cutters Union withdrew from the union and began granite cutting on their own account. The officials of the union endeavored to enforce some of its rules, and the new manufacturers entered a complaint, alleging that an effort was being made to destroy their business. The complaint resulted in the arrest of 10 members of the union on an indictment charging them with conspiracy.

Injunction — Boycott.—Judge Ferris, of the Superior Court of Cincinnati, O., in refusing to grant an injunction prayed for by Perkins-Campbell Co. restraining Albert Teters, et al., and Local Union No. 49, of the International

¹ See Massachusetts Labor Bulletin No. 36, June, 1905, p. 147.

United Brotherhood of Leather Workers on Horse Goods (Case No. 52763), from harassing or embarrassing plaintiff in its business, from accosting, harassing, threatening, or frightening those desiring to enter its employ, or those now in its employ, or inducing others to do the same, said in part:

"The plaintiffs claim that they have the right to prosecute, peaceably and quietly, their business, and, therefore, equity should enjoin defendants from enticing away their employees, whether under special contract or under general contract, and they deny that this can be done by peaceful persuasion and argument. Plaintiffs rely upon the fact that the courts have everywhere held that the right of a proprietor of a business to employ other persons to assist him in the prosecution of his business, is a property right, and unlawful interference with that right will, in a proper case, be restrained in a Court of Equity. . . .

"The case at bar does not indicate an endeavor on the part of the men to secure better wages, but more tolerable relations. They were contending for what they believed to be a principle, and if, in such controversies, loss should be shown to the employer, such loss would be the natural result of efforts not regarded as illegitimate, either in combination or by an individual. . . .

"The owner has the undoubted right to conduct his business as he sees fit, to name reasonable conditions for his employees, and to have his workmen as free from annoyance and nuisance of every character as is he himself. . . .

"'Picketing,' when confined to watching and speaking to workmen as they go to or return from employment, to induce them to leave the service, when free from intimidation or threat, is held not to be unlawful. . . . Thus the striking workman also has had his rights determined by the Courts.

"It is apparent that this system of espionage, adopted in all strikes, has brought the term 'picketing' into ill-repute by reason of the unlawful manner in which it has been conducted, and the zeal of the workman for his cause, together with the immediate consequence of success or failure, has frequently led men otherwise sane to do insane things, and has given to the world shocking evidences of brutality, committed under the guise, if not the sanction, of 'trade unions.' Yet, on this account, a general condemnation is not to be had against all strikes, and against all picketing, and against all patrolling.

"I can find, in the law, no objection to the manner in which these defendants conducted

their attempts to secure co-operation of the new employees, as far as picketing and patrolling is concerned. . . .

"The case at bar presents a state of facts singularly free from a suspicion of what is found in many of the cases referred to as acts of violence. Not an act that would fall under the head of brutality was done by the defendants. No act of violence or anything that approached violence appeared in testimony, except possibly the conduct of one of the strikers as detailed by the witness Grinker, and if this incident were judicially examined, an acquittal would have resulted. The act complained was at best only a technical assault, committed by one, who in his anxiety to press his views, lays hold of the arm of another, excusable under the circumstances as detailed by the corroborating witnesses, and the affair cannot be translated into an act of brutality. There was evidence that indicated the use of language and a provocation that is not excusable ordinarily, and while I realize that competent proof should be clear and convincing, when it is made the basis of an injunction, I should be singularly lacking in applying proper rules. If, under the circumstances, I were to grant the prayer for injunction, . . .

"I have listened to the testimony in this case patiently and with care, and considered as a whole it furnishes no evidence of a malicious intention on the part of any of the defendants to destroy the plaintiff's business, or that they have endeavored to accomplish such purpose by threats, unlawful persuasion, intimidation or the use of coercive measures. The testimony shows that the defendants have made vigorous attempts to engage employees in conversation, in going to and coming from their work, and some of the arguments connected therewith may have been too earnestly conducted, but this is not to be expected of men under such circumstances, and when concerned with such vital questions men may be excused for vehemence in the presentation of their cause.

"I am aware in reaching the conclusion that the injunction ought not to be issued under the facts shown, that the decisions relating to cases of this kind are not in perfect harmony, but believe that this case presents facts that are unusual and different from those that, unfortunately, appear in some of the reported cases. I am of the opinion that it is the duty of the Court to state the law applicable to the facts as they have appeared by the testimony in this case.

"For the reasons stated above, I have determined not to issue the injunction as prayed for."

INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

Boston.

BRICKLAYERS.

Bricklayers Nos. 3 and 27, Stonemasons No. 9, of Boston, and Stonemasons No. 34, of Cambridge, and No. 37, of Malden, and Employers.

On April 1, 1906, Bricklayers Union No. 3 and

Stonemasons Union No. 9 sent to employers (about 150) a request for an increase in wages from 55 cents to 60 cents an hour and the Saturday half-holiday during the entire year, to take effect June 1. All but 32 firms, employing 91 men, granted the request, and on June 1, these 91 men struck; by July 10, all but seven large firms, who declared open shop, had granted

demands, and all the union men formerly employed by these firms procured work elsewhere. The working rules, which went in force on June 1, follow:

WORKING RULES.

1. Hours of Labor.

a. The working hours shall be from 8 A.M. to 12 M., and from 1 P.M. to 5 P.M., except as hereinafter provided. No work shall be done between the hours of 7 and 8 A.M., 12 M. and 1 P.M., 5 P.M. and 6 P.M., nor on Saturday afternoon from 12 M. to 6 P.M. unless danger to life or property would result by leaving the work.

b. All overtime shall be paid for at double rate. Overtime means all time between 12 M. on Saturday and 8 A.M. on Monday, also all time between 5 P.M. and 8 A.M. on other days, and the secular days on which the following legal holidays are generally observed: Memorial Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas.

2. Wages. Brick Masonry:

a. The minimum rate of wages shall be 60 cents an hour.

b. The minimum rate of wages on all sewer work shall be 70 cents an hour.

Stone Masonry:

c. The minimum rate of wages on all superstructures shall be 60 cents an hour.

d. The minimum rate of wages on all foundation work where the superstructure is to be of stone (natural or artificial), brick, terra cotta, or cement blocks shall be 60 cents an hour.

e. The minimum rate of wages on foundation work for wooden structures shall be 55 cents an hour.

3. Payment of Wages.

a. Bricklayers and stonemasons shall be paid during working hours before 12 M. Saturday. Pay time to close not earlier than Wednesday night before pay day.

b. When a bricklayer or stonemason is discharged or laid off he shall, on demand, receive his wages in cash or office order. An office order shall entitle the holder to one hour's pay in addition to wages due for work performed. A violation of Sections a or b of No. 3 entitles the bricklayer or stonemason to waiting time, provided said claimant remains at the job or office during all working hours until he is paid.

c. When a bricklayer or stonemason is hired and carries his tools to the job and is not put to work at the specified time, he shall receive one hour's pay on demand.

d. When a bricklayer or stonemason who is employed on a job reports and is discharged, he shall be entitled to one hour's pay on demand.

e. Waiting time when demanded shall be for single time for every working hour or fraction thereof, not exceeding eight hours. If waiting time be commenced or continued in hours classed as "overtime" payments shall be made at the rate of double time, but no payment shall be demanded for hours waited exceeding two in said overtime, and no claim shall be made for more than 12 hours single time, irrespective of all number of hours kept waiting.

4. In employment of journeymen preference shall be given to members of the Bricklayers and Masons International Union.

The business agent shall be allowed to visit

any building under construction while attending to his official duties.

SIGN CARPENTERS.

Sign Builders and Hangers Union No. 1271 and Employers.

In May, 1906, Sign Builders and Hangers Union No. 1271 presented employers with new agreement to be signed calling for an increase in wages for journeymen sign carpenters from \$3 to \$3.25 and the closed shop; all but three of the largest employers signed; in July, 20 sign carpenters and helpers and two apprentices in the employ of these three firms struck; conferences were held which resulted in the signing of the following agreement:

1. Eight hours shall constitute a day's labor, one-quarter day to be the smallest fraction thereof. Between June 15 and September 15 the working hours on Saturday shall be from 8 A.M. to 12 M. This time shall be paid for as one-half day. All work done on Saturday after 12 M. shall be paid for as double time.

2. None but union men shall be employed, as enumerated in the classes specified in Section 3 of this agreement, and carrying the current working card of the Carpenters District Council.

3. The minimum daily wage shall be as follows:

Journemen sign builders and hangers, .	\$3.28
Helpers,	2.50
Apprentices,	1.25

4. Double time shall be paid for all overtime, meaning any time worked between the hours of 5 P.M. and 8 A.M., Sundays and holidays, and Saturday afternoons as specified in Section 1.

5. Subcontracting from master sign-builders and hangers shall be prohibited.

6. Members sent out of town shall receive their usual wages and hotel and traveling expenses.

7. Every shop shall be entitled to one apprentice, and one apprentice to every three journeymen, and he shall have a special card from the union and shall not have charge of any work.

8. A helper shall be one who assists a sign builder or hanger, and he may do any other labor pertaining to sign building or hanging but shall not be allowed to have charge of any work, and he shall have a special card from the union.

9. If at any time an emergency arises, when an extra man is needed for a short time only, one, other than a workman in this special trade, may be sent if approved by the shop steward.

10. The union, in consideration of the agreement of the employers, hereby agrees to adhere to the conditions of the foregoing; to turn over any contracts secured to the employers, to furnish the best service available, to foster and protect the interests of the employers wherever and by all honorable means possible, and to co-operate with the employers for the general improvement of the business.

11. In case of any trouble or difference arising between the two parties to this agreement, the same shall be presented to conference committee of three members of the Carpenters District Council and two of Sign Builders and Hangers Union No. 1271 and five master sign builders, for adjustment. In case of the inability of this committee to decide the question at issue, the

committee shall select an umpire who shall have the deciding vote, and whatever decision is rendered shall be final and binding. Under no consideration shall work cease during the settlement of the controversy.

This agreement shall be in effect from this date until May 1, 1907.

Approved by Carpenters District Council.

Brockton.

ELECTRICAL WORKERS.

Electrical Workers Union No. 223 and Employers.

1. Eight hours shall constitute a day's work.
2. The regular hours of work shall be from 8 A.M. to 5 P.M.
3. The contractors shall furnish all necessary tools for conduit work and all bits over regular length and $1\frac{1}{8}$ inches diameter.
4. Journeymen shall be responsible for all tools taken from the shop.
5. The contractors shall pay all necessary fares except between the shop and workman's residence.
6. The contractors shall pay all expenses on out-of-town work for one week or less. After one week all expenses except \$3, which shall be paid by the workmen.
7. The minimum rate of wages for journeymen shall be \$3 a day. Helpers shall be classed as first and second class helpers; first class shall receive \$2.50 a day and second class be paid according to ability.
8. A first class helper shall be one who has served two years at the electrical trade.
9. The contractors shall be allowed two helpers to one journeyman on all jobs.
10. No helper shall be allowed to carry on the installation of any work except as an assistant to a journeyman.
11. Electrical Workers Union No. 223 hereby agrees not to permit its members to work for any contractor not a signer of this agreement, and further agrees not to permit its members to carry on the installation of any new work or changing over any systems of wiring, which should be contracted for by signers of this agreement.
12. An arbitration committee of two men of each party to this agreement shall be chosen, before whom matters not provided for in this agreement or any violation thereof shall be brought. If at any time this committee should fail to agree on any matter, said committee shall have power to call on the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, whose decision shall be final and binding.
13. Any labor performed before 8 A.M. and after 6 P.M. shall be paid for at one and one-half the regular rate of wages. All labor performed on Sundays and holidays shall be paid for at double the regular rate of wages. Legal holidays shall be Washington's Birthday, 19th of April, Decoration Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas.

14. This agreement shall take place May 1, 1906, and shall remain in force for one year.

Lynn.

BAKERS.

Bakery and Confectionery Workers No. 182 and Master Bakers' Association.

1. It is hereby agreed that employers will at all times in the conduct of their business employ only members of the Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America who are in good standing. When practical they will hire the same through the Secretary of Local Union, No. 182, of Lynn, Mass.
2. That said members shall not work over nine hours a day, or 54 hours a week, of six days. That members shall not work Sundays or legal holidays, nor shall they work over three hours overtime in any one week. Overtime to be paid at the rate of 40 cents an hour. No overtime shall be charged in a week where there is a holiday unless men work over 54 hours. This section shall not apply to hotel and restaurant bakers or ice cream makers.
3. Hotel and restaurant bakers and ice cream makers may be employed to work on Sundays and holidays, providing such work shall be considered as overtime and paid at the rate of 40 cents an hour.
4. Foremen shall not receive less than \$20 a week. Second hands not less than \$16 a week, all bench and bowl hands not less than \$15 a week.
5. One helper is allowed to five bakers, over that number two helpers are allowed.
6. Jobbers shall not receive less than \$3 a day of nine hours, and 40 cents an hour overtime.
7. The Secretary or any member with credentials from the Union shall be admitted to the shop.
8. Employers shall be furnished with labels free of charge, by Local 182, and left to the option of the employer to use them or not.¹
9. That in shops employing one man to work alone he shall receive not less than \$18 a week.
10. That no man shall be called out of any shop until a committee of Local No. 182 and the employer hold a conference. In case of failure to come to terms, said disagreement shall be arbitrated by the executive board of this local, and an equal number of master bakers.
11. That if any member reports for work in an unfit state (except through sickness), his employer may report same to Local No. 182, which shall impose a fine on said member.
12. No member shall be compelled to board with employer.
- For setting sponges or other work outside of regular hours, overtime shall be paid.
13. Night men shall not start work before 6 P.M., provided however that an earlier hour may be agreed upon by master baker and journeymen.
14. This contract shall not be altered by any verbal agreement. Both parties to this contract agree that it shall be in force from May 1, 1906, up to and including April 30, 1907.

¹ In 1905-1906 the use of labels was compulsory.

CURRENT COMMENT ON LABOR QUESTIONS.

[The Bureau does not necessarily indorse any of the views or opinions printed under this heading, its object being rather to present diverse views on labor questions, leaving the reader to draw his individual conclusions from the testimony or information supplied. The comments, as a rule, are presented in a condensed form; the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers, from which extracts are made, being given, together with the date of publication.]

Old-age Pensions.

Thomas Bart. M.P. — The brilliant author of *Robinson Crusoe* outlined a pension scheme to provide "subsistence for the poor and infirm whenever age or disablement should reduce them to the necessity of making use of it." Thomas Paine, and other eminent publicists, including several members of Parliament and statesmen, pressed the subject upon public attention in the closing years of the eighteenth century. Well nigh two hundred years have elapsed since Daniel Defoe wrote, and it is nearly a century since Paine died. In the interval our country has been transformed from a small community, almost wholly agricultural, into a great manufacturing, mining, industrial nation—one of the greatest on the face of the globe. . . . Year after year it becomes more and more difficult for the aged and aging to obtain and to retain their employment. In the vicissitudes and fluctuations of trade they are the first to be dismissed and the last to be re-employed. Hence the urgent and admitted necessity that something shall be done to heal this sore malady in the body politic. The next great reform in our poor-laws system must include old-age pensions. . . . Mr. Charles Booth, a very high authority, after a careful analysis, inferred from these official figures that "not less than one-third of the working class over sixty-five years of age were to a greater or less extent dependent on public relief in 1890." Another eminent authority, Sir Spencer Walpole, in a striking memorandum which he laid before Lord Rothschild's old-age pension committee, of which he was a member, stated that "one person out of every five, of sixty-five years and over, had received public relief on a particular day in 1892; that one out of three of that age had applied for relief in the course of the year; and that, deducting the well-to-do, one working man or woman out of every two are more or less dependent on the rates in their old age." . . . It was proved beyond controversy that great numbers of our population have incomes so scanty that it is practically impossible for them to make provision for their declining years. It has been stated on high authority that about one-third of our workers have to live upon a pound a week. Thrift does not necessarily mean saving. It means good management, and with the meagre incomes of our agricultural la-

borers, and of large numbers of our unskilled workers, there is unmistakable thrift when they rear their families in anything like decency, without saving for their old age. Contributory schemes for old-age pensions are therefore ruled out by the stern logic of facts. . . . The high moralists who are so fearfully perturbed lest the aged workers should be demoralized by the payment to them of five shillings a week seem to be unaware or forgetful of the fact that some eight million pounds a year is now paid in pensions to certain specially favored individuals. It is never suggested that these fortunate recipients, many of them fairly well-to-do and not a few of whom are paid hundreds of thousands a year, are pauperised, degraded, or rendered thriftless by what they receive from the State. Oh, but these persons, it is replied, have served their country on the battlefield, in the legislative chambers, or as government officials. No doubt that is true of many of them. But when service to their country is justly enough advanced as a reason for a special reward, on what principle is the worn-out toiler, who has contributed to the production of the nation's wealth, to be excluded from participation in a similar reward? "A laborer serves his country with his spade just as a man in the middle ranks of life serves it with his sword, his pen, his brain, or his lanceet. If the service be less, and therefore the wages during health less, then the reward when health is broken may be less, but not less honorable." John Ruskin, from whom I quote, goes on to say that it "ought to be quite as natural and straightforward for a laborer to take his pension from his parish, because he has deserved well of his parish, as for a man of higher rank to take his pension from his country because he has deserved well of his country." That is our contention, only we should include the woman as well as the man, and we should substitute country for parish, an alteration which does not invalidate the principle laid down by Ruskin.

I agree that anything which tends to weaken or discourage habits of thrift is to be deprecated. The sad truth must be acknowledged and deplored that great numbers are brought to poverty and destitution by improvidence and intemperance, drink playing sad havoc in many ways. But it is equally true that heroic efforts are

made by tens of thousands of ill-paid wage-earners to maintain their independence and to live without assistance from the poor-rates. Sometimes these efforts succeed; often they fail.

It may be doubted whether the public generally are fully aware of what is already being done for the aged by workmen through their trade unions' and other great self-help organizations. Let me give a few figures. I find from the last issue of the Labour Statistics published by the Board of Trade, that in 1904—the last year for which the facts are available—forty of the principal trade unions paid no less a sum than £267,396 in superannuation benefit. The Amalgamated Society of Engineers itself is paying more than one hundred thousand pounds a year to its aged members. All this is in addition to large expenditure on the unemployed, which again is no doubt greatly swelled by those who are made worthless through old age. The Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund has for many years made provisions for its aged members. In 1905 there were 4,591 on the fund, the total amount paid in superannuation for the year being £60,974. Whether a general old-age pension scheme be adopted or not these societies will continue the noble work which they have begun. But after all, creditable though all this is to the humanity and to the organizing faculty of those concerned, the evil is hardly touched by these voluntary associations. — *Nineteenth Century Magazine*, September, 1906.

Boston Advertiser.—How much of a precedent is established, or at least suggested, in the doubling of salaries of the clerks of the Late Russell Sage by Mrs. Sage? . . . It will raise the question: Is long and faithful service of itself entitled to reward, irrespective of increasing or decreasing worth? In France the question has assumed some political importance, and in this country it has aroused discussion. . . . If an employee puts aside opportunities to change his employment, through allegiance to his employer, is his employer morally bound to recognize this course, in later years, by paying more for that employee's service than he is actually worth, in cash? The principle is finding general application in teachers' pensions and retiring allowances through private philanthropy. It is finding expression in other callings through public expenditure. Is it a duty of employers, assumed by virtue of their employing of men and women? Mrs. Sage's action suggests the question. — *November 5, 1906*.

Boston Post.—We doubt that the proposition of the Massachusetts Schoolmasters' Club, looking to the pensioning of superannuated school teachers at public expense, will find general favor. This is not due to any lack of sympathy or consideration for such teachers as find themselves, after long service, disqualified by the infirmities of age from gainful employment in their profession, but to the general belief that public servants of every class, who are not exposed to peculiar dangers in the performance of their duties, should be expected to provide for the coming "rainy day" out of their earnings. Those who labor in private employment are expected to do this. Why should there be established a privileged class of workers?

It is to be said in extenuation, if not in sup-

port, of the pension scheme, that a teacher who has reached the age of superannuation may be retained through sympathy and as a matter of charity in a position for which he is no longer competent; and that if it were understood that his retirement would carry with it a sufficient pension, he would be got rid of honorably and charitably, to the advantage of the schools, through the appointment of a competent successor.

But this does not touch the point. The salaried public servant has no claim upon the public purse that the salaried employee of a private house does not have upon his employers. The latter makes provision for himself, or at least is expected to do so. And the solution of this problem is, we think, reached in the action of the public school teachers of Boston, who voluntarily assess themselves to maintain a fund from which annuities are paid to such members as drop out of active work through superannuation. — *October 31, 1905*.

The Chamber of Deputies today almost unanimously passed the long-debated bill providing for workmen's pensions. The law provides that the employer, employer, and government each contribute to a fund from which the workman may be pensioned after he is 65 years of age. — *October 21, 1906*.

Progressing progress in the preparation of a scheme for the pensioning of superannuated teachers in our public schools is reported by Mr. David A. D. S., member of the School Board and chairman of the committee charged with this work. The proposal, it is understood, is to develop a pension association with the master and teachers as members, probably taking over by the city the teachers' retirement fund already established. The success of this relief will be extended and the wage of the pension privilege fixed.

The necessity for a comprehensive and equitable pension system has long been recognized, and it becomes more pressing as the years go on. At the present time there are about 70 teachers in our public schools, men and women, who have reached the age of 65 years or over. In many of these cases, the teacher has passed the limit of full usefulness in a work of that exacting character, and the best interests of the schools demand their retirement. An unqualified discharge, after long and faithful service, would be cruelty. With a properly adjusted pension system this difficulty will be removed. — *November 5, 1906*.

Boston Globe.—Old age pensions promise to become a matter of continuous discussion in governmental and business circles in America until there are more laws and customs to relieve the distress of those who are incapacitated from working longer at their occupations owing to advanced age or impaired health.

In several foreign countries the giving of these pensions has long since been established and graded by the imperial governments. The most common custom abroad is to withhold a small percentage of the pay of the government official or industrial worker and upon retirement he draws a pension from the government treasury, the sum being one-third or one-half of the amount he received while employed. This plan has been discussed in the United States for some

years and especially in federal government circles. . . . The General Court of Massachusetts will probably soon discuss pension legislation. School teachers and others are interested in the matter. If it is possible to frame a wise law, under the provisions of which cities and towns may be permitted to pension aged and deserving employees who have rendered long service, the communities may not begrudge the expense attending this departure. — *February 7, 1906.*

The life-savers in government employ are the pick and flower of the boatmen all along the sea and lake coasts. They must be skilled in the handling of boats in the surf under the most adverse conditions of wind and sea; they must also be physically perfect and are subject to a rigid examination every year. If the life-saver becomes injured and therefore fails to pass the physical examination at the beginning of the active season he is dropped from the service. The government may pay him wages for one year, possibly two if the case warrants it, but not more than two years in any event. . . . The government can well afford to grant these men a moderate pension when, after the best years of their lives have been given to the service of their country, they are incapacitated for work or crippled for life from injuries received in the faithful performance of duty. — *March 16, 1906.*

Boston Journal. — Another step toward that splendid day when all faithful service shall find that its old age will not be left unrewarded has just been taken by the great New York Central with its plan to pension all its employees of ten years' standing or more, who shall reach 70 years. This means that 50,000 men will all have the very satisfactory privilege of knowing that when the "pruning knife of time cuts them down," they will still be nurtured by about a quarter of their former pay. In all, about \$350,000 will be needed every year to put this kindly plan into effect. It is quite likely that some day or other old age will be pensioned generally, if the veteran has led a decent life. Meantime, it is a good sign of an advancing world when great corporations decide no more to cast adrift into poverty men who have served them well. — *March 10, 1906.*

Dr. Edward Everett Hale. — The poorhouses of the State of Massachusetts are taking care as they can of these old men whose only fault is that they are 70 years old. Modern civilization has no place for these men. They cannot run with the machine. Nineteen out of 20 of such men are never heard of by overseers of the poor or any other administrators of charity. I am one of them, and I have always got along without going to Mr. Pettee for a Pemberton pension. But there are others less fortunate than I am. Yet these others began 50 years ago to pay \$2 a year to the State of Massachusetts. In 50 years since they have continued this payment. If anybody has arithmetic enough and will compound the interest on these payments, he can see how large a sum these old gentlemen have paid to the State. . . . [The sum of \$2, compounded annually for 50 years, makes a total of \$589. — *Ed.*]

Now there is no reason why these old septuagenarians should be living in poorhouses. Pass Mr. Brigham's bill, let each of them receive \$100 a year from the treasurer of his town, and see

how soon Aminadab or Bathsheba or Colin or Dorothy will remember the old gentleman and will offer him a home. Then see how soon he will be taking care of the children, feeding the chickens, raking out the garden, and find himself a useful member of the community again. And see how soon the overseers of the poor will report to the selectmen and then to the town meeting that there is no need of keeping up the town farm, that there is no longer any use for the town farm. It is hardly worth while to keep up a town farm for summer boarders. — *Springfield Republican, from Christian Register, March 23, 1906.*

Boston Herald. — Whatever subject Edward Everett Hale writes or speaks upon, it is quite safe to expect that what he says will be interesting. It is so with his views on old-age pensions, which appear in the *Christian Register*. This subject is again brought to the public attention in a very practical way by the unanimous vote of the colonial legislature of Newfoundland in favor of old-age pensions, on terms to be determined by a commission which shall investigate the subject during the next 12 months. The premier said he believed the adoption of the policy would not unduly strain the colony's finances. The cost of such pensions is estimated at \$150,000 to \$200,000 a year. . . . If such a state of semi-independence, self-respect, and helpfulness as Dr. Hale depicts could be secured for these old men at no more than the cost of the public charity which now sustains them as paupers — or even at half as much again — Massachusetts would not begrudge it. — *March 26, 1906.*

Boston Traveler. — The solution of the problem is in some form of pension which will be fair to the city and fair to the employees, and there is no question if the matter can be properly worked out that the city will be a large gainer by an old-age pension law. — *March 21, 1906.*

The old-age pension commission appointed by the Australian government have made their report, and recommend that such pensions be provided throughout the Commonwealth, the maximum to be \$2.43 a week, which, it is estimated, will require \$7,299,750 per annum. The commission recommend that an old-age pension bill be introduced into Parliament carrying out their plans. — *July 9, 1906.*

The fact that Massachusetts towns are obliged to sell their poorhouses because inmates to occupy them are not to be found is a pretty good indication of the general prosperity of the people of the State. — *November 5, 1906.*

Harper's Weekly. — The objection to old-age pensions, that they tend to make workmen thriftless, is met by the precaution taken in Germany, where, in order to secure the benefits of the legislation, a workman is obliged to contribute annually a certain sum, to which an equivalent amount is added by the employer, the State contributing the remaining third. This provision of the German act is reproduced in the French bill; indeed, in France, compulsory provision for old age has been for some years made in the case of seamen and miners. In New Zealand, on the other hand, no contribution toward a pension fund is required from the beneficiary. This is a subject, as we have inti-

mated, about which we are likely to hear more in this country at no distant day.

Boston American. — The same House of Representatives which not long ago passed the bill giving pensions to judges of the probate courts yesterday afternoon refused to receive the bill granting old-age pensions for the poor and needy. — *May 11, 1906.*

Springfield Republican. — The question arises why one class of public servants, and they a most intelligent class and best able to look out for themselves, should be compelled by the public authority to become saving and thrifty and prudent, and not all classes of public servants; and why all classes of public servants and not the general industrial classes, and particularly the workers for small wages in factories and mercantile establishments. Germany's idea is that the latter classes most need looking after through a system of old-age and disability pensions, and it is impossible to deny the force of this claim. Pensions for teachers will irresistibly compel the establishment of a system of general industrial pensions, and the State will be quickly forced into the position of guardian over the fiscal affairs of all or most of its citizens, asserting for them that care and prudence in the disposition of their earnings which have heretofore been regarded as peculiarly the province of the individual and chief factors in the building or molding of personal character and a wholesome individual independence and industry. — *January 21, 1906.*

The trustees of the Carnegie foundation, who are charged with administering \$10,000,000 gift of Andrew Carnegie to provide pensions for professors and teachers of institutions of higher learning in the United States and Canada, met at New York yesterday and adopted a scale of pensions practically as outlined in the federal charter of the foundation which was formally adopted at the meeting. The income from the fund will be about \$500,000 a year, and there are now on file 200 applications from professors. It is expected that the system will be in actual operation by June. . . . No retiring allowance shall exceed \$3,000. — *April 19, 1906.*

Brockton Daily Enterprise. — Pension laws are being numerously asked in these days. Policemen, firemen, teachers, workers in the jails, city employees generally, and State employees are figuring on some day having pensions voted to them. Now why not follow the old-age system for all people, and assess each of us a certain sum per annum and give us something to look forward to as a certain asset at the time that the back is bending and the head heavy under the weight of the snows of the years? Pensions for everybody? Why not? — *January 19, 1906.*

Joseph Lee. — A bill has been introduced this year in the Massachusetts Legislature for providing old-age pensions, and the same policy is said to be receiving support from the new liberal government in England. A proposition resting upon a similar theory as to the best method of meeting the problem of poverty is the proposal that has been made in New York and elsewhere that school children whose parents do not feed them properly should receive free meals in school.

We believe that both of these measures are calculated to produce very different results from what their advocates desire, and that both of them are attacking the problem of poverty from the wrong end. A law providing that old people shall be supported by the State lessens by just so much the motive for saving, and what is more important, impairs the cogency of family loyalty and affection on the part of the children. If the State will look after the old folks, what necessity is there that the young should do so? Similarly, if the State advertises that any parent by ceasing to feed his children can make them fit objects for public support, why should he any longer struggle to feed them? Why should he have any reference to ability to feed them in marrying or in planning his family life? The two measures taken together would weaken the family relation at its two most binding points, the tie that binds the parent to the child and that which binds the child to the parent. It would lessen the two great motives that have created and upheld the self-supporting, self-respecting family, the fundamental institution on which our civilization is based. — *Boston Transcript.*

The Open Shop. — A great deal is being said in complaint about the discharge of old men from industrial employment. In fact, this displacement of old men by young men is coming to be looked upon as a fully developed "problem." In all the great countries of the world a similar tendency has arisen, but nowhere is it so pronounced as in America. It is a fact, also, that the unthrift of the American workman makes his compulsory retirement from industrial labor the harder to be borne.

All this leads up to the question, Why is it that America is doing nothing in the way of old-age pensions? So far as can be learned every civilized country is endeavoring to establish, or has already established, an old-age pension system of more or less liberality. In some cases the workman contributes a part of the old-age reserve fund and the employer a part. In all cases the plan seeks to provide for the workman when he is unable to longer earn a living at his trade.

It would be worth while to know why those newspapers and other "friends of the wage-worker" do not seek to put America abreast of other nations in making provision for indigent aged workmen. Proper legislation on this line is in order. — *Cincinnati, O., September, 1905.*

Frank A. Vanderlip. — As the German system of workmen's insurance is by all odds the most important experiment of this sort in the world, I have been to some pains to ascertain at first hand just what German manufacturers and men of affairs think about it. In the main, the views held are distinctly favorable to the institution, although in the details of its administration there is found ground for criticism. The idea seems to be general that the system works for patriotic loyalty to the government on the part of the working people. The general effect of the system is thought to have a good influence in preventing a tendency toward socialism.

Inquiry shows that more than 70 corporations in the United States, among them some of

the most important in the country, have adopted some sort of old-age pensions. More than 400 others have the matter under serious consideration. Without a single exception, corporations which have adopted such a plan expressed the opinion, after having had a chance to note its effect, that it is a wise business practice. . . . The new industrial order has made a new social order. There is to-day no such thing as industrial independence possible for a workman. The moment he gets out of harmony with the whirl of the industrial machine, the moment that sickness overtakes him and accident injures him or old age reduces his power to keep in step with the industrial march, his condition is likely to become incomparably more unfortunate than would have been the case under similar circumstances in earlier times.

Such business men as you [the Commercial Club of Chicago] recognize that you must shape your business methods so as to harmonize with the new order of things. You know that you must co-operate in many ways with your fellows; must share with them their risks; must help to sustain them in their misfortunes. — *The Business World*, New York, November, 1905.

Boston Transcript. — No speech of the recent session of Parliament attracted more attention, and none has had more effect than that of John Burns, president of the Local Government Board, on the problem of reducing the numbers of the unemployed in Great Britain. . . . It is found that at least 50,000 children of tender age are working more than 20 hours a week in addition to their 27 hours in school. The London County Council has issued new regulations designed to break up the street and shop working of school children out of school hours. . . . The statisticians of the Local Government Board show that the addition of a hundred thousand to the pauper roll has been one of the sequelae of the South African War. The total is just under a million, with a remarkable increase in insane. While the population has increased about one-third in the last generation, the number of insane paupers has doubled. Of the million of paupers over sixty thousand are children. It is coming to be generally agreed that the workhouse system is broken down; that it cost more to take care of helpless and destitute old age in the almshouses than it would under a system of old-age pensions. Some methods must be discovered for the treatment of unemployment less demoralizing to the recipient of society's dole, and less wasteful of its human material. — *September 13, 1906.*

The Fabian Society. — Another special reason for the abolition of the poor-law guardians and of the distinctive character of the poor law will arise whenever an attempt is made to prepare a practical old-age pensions bill. Parliament in England, when it faces the question, will legislate on the lines already adopted wherever old-age pensions are now the law; that is, it will award the pensions to those who need them, and can make good use of them, and to no others. It may be assumed, therefore, that any bill must proceed on the lines of the House of Commons committee report of 1899 and of the New Zealand pensions law, and not on the lines of absolutely universal pensions promoted by Mr. Charles Booth and others. When it is recol-

lected that in quite round figures the former project will cost at first £10,000,000 a year and the latter £20,000,000, it is fairly obvious that the former scheme will at any rate precede the latter. It is true that the importance of these sums is quite imaginary, as we are at present allowing hundreds of millions of pounds to go annually in unearned incomes; and an adjustment of the income tax could easily produce the twenty millions without hardshiping any industrious person in the community; but for the moment we must take the British House of Commons as it is, and assume that a ten-million plan will be preferred to a twenty-million plan, and that pensions will not be provided for those who do not need them, or who, through infirmity of character, could not be trusted to make the intended use of them.

Old-age pensions are merely a modern form of poor relief. The working classes demand, with extreme insistence, that these pensions should be wholly dissociated from the obnoxious poor law. On the other hand, the House of Commons Committee points out the absurdity of setting up a new machinery for administering pensions, and thus creating two distinct authorities for the two alternative forms of relief, between which there would be endless confusion and waste both of energy and of money. The committee, therefore, reported that pensions must be administered by the poor law authority. Yet any one even moderately acquainted with working class opinion knows that to entrust old-age pensions to the guardians would be so unpopular as to wreck the whole scheme. The obvious and only solution of this difficulty is the abolition of the poor law as a separate department of local government. — *Fabian Tract No. 126, London, England.*

England's Wasteful Poor-law System. — Miss Edith Sellers, an expert on provision for the aged and the poor in all lands, renders timely service by her article in the *Nineteenth Century* (London, September, 1905), "How Poor Law Guardians Spend Their Money." It is a complete explosion of the vaunted economy practised by guardians. . . . Miss Sellers selects for her analysis a comparatively small district with a population of 52,000, made up of three little towns and several villages, all alike being fairly well-to-do. . . . Taking in other items, Miss Sellers finds that of the £19,796 spent in the year, £6,320 had gone to the relief of 573 out-paupers, 28 non-resident paupers, and 86 afflicted persons, together with the sick relief of the whole district — that is, to 687 out of the total of 936 persons relieved. This is a sum of \$290 a year on each inmate. So Miss Sellers arrives at the staggering conclusion:

They must, therefore, have spent no less a sum than £13,476 on defraying the cost of administration and providing for 174 workhouse inmates, 48 workhouse children, and 27 vagrants, practically on boarding and lodging 222 persons, and giving a night's shelter, together with a snack meal or two, to 27 more. Thus, had they made a clean sweep of the whole relief paraphernalia, — an impossible feat, of course, — and themselves dealt out to their *protégés* the money they spent, they would have been able to present to each of their vagrants a shilling every night, and to each of their workhouse inmates

and school children £58 every year. On £58 a year many a curate, as many a clerk, not only lives himself, but supports a wife and family.—*American Review of Reviews.*

William Bruce Leffingwell.—I recall, when years ago I first read that sympathetic poem written by Will Carleton, and entitled "Over the Hills to the Poorhouse." Tonight, while we are assembled here, most of us in the full enjoyment of health and happiness, there are thousands of old people, scattered throughout the United States, who have quitted from the cup of life and found its contents possessed only ill-health and disappointment. Age has sapped their limbs, the frosts of winter have whitened their locks, their strength is gone and with tottering limbs they are starting on that journey which leads "over the hills to the poorhouse." It is a sad comment on man's inhumanity to man that this is so.

In New Zealand, old men and women are cared for by the government. The old-age pension act provides for the payment of a pension of \$2.50 a week to every poor person who has lived a good life, who has attained the age of 65 years, and who has lived in the Colony for 25 years. If husband and wife are spared, they are each entitled to a pension. I was told the other day in my office by a gentleman who called that "New Zealand is a paternal government." Perhaps it is. It cares for its old people in their last days, prolonging and making their lives more content and happy. Government affection, call it paternal if you will, exists in New Zealand for old people, and I hope it will until the last page of the Book of Life is closed. —*From an address delivered at Milwaukee, Wis., April 21, 1906, before the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association, the Federal Trades Council, the Press Club, and others.*

EXCERPTS

Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest.

The Late Joseph H. Stubbs of Indiana.

The Bureau learned with regret of the death of Joseph H. Stubbs, Chief of the Indiana Bureau of Statistics, on December 6, 1906. Mr. Stubbs, who for twenty-three years had been a commercial traveler, became Chief of the Bureau in January, 1905, having been elected to that office as the "Traveling-men's Candidate." His plurality at the election was higher than that of any other candidate on the State ticket. At the last election he was re-elected with but little opposition to serve for another term of two years, beginning January 1, 1907.

The Indiana Bureau of Statistics was established in 1879, and Mr. Stubbs was the seventh in succession of its chief officers. At the Twenty-second Annual Convention of the Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor Statistics of America, held at Boston, July 24-28, 1906, Mr. Stubbs was in attendance and spoke of the work of the Bureau which he represented. He said that the State appropriations for the use of the Bureau had been rather limited, but that notwithstanding that fact several new lines of work, in addition to the publication of the usual biennial report, were being undertaken. An official investigation of the labor problem was being made. No investigation of this nature had ever before been made in Indiana. The subject of banks and banking was also being considered, and plans for gathering church statistics had been adopted. The Bureau was attempting to co-operate with the Census Bureau at Washington in the collection of statistics of manufactures. Since his election to the office of Chief of the Bureau, Mr. Stubbs had arranged for the publication of bulletins of the Bureau from time to time. One bulletin, containing reports from factories of the State and also information as to labor unions, had already been issued.

Only a few months prior to the death of Mr. Stubbs the Bureau suffered through the death of its Chief Deputy, Mr. David M. Greeting. The office is now in charge of Mr. Edward Goodnow, Second Deputy. The vacancy created by the death of Mr. Stubbs will be filled by the Governor, who will appoint a man to serve as Chief of the Bureau until his successor shall have been elected.

People's Palace — Salvation Army.

The People's Palace, erected by the Salvation Army at the corner of Washington and East Brookline Sts., is now practically completed. The cost of the land, covering an area of 12,750 square feet, was \$52,500. The building itself cost about \$190,000, bringing the total cost up to about \$242,000. In three years approximately \$125,000 has been raised for this purpose. A loan of \$100,000 at four per cent has been negotiated to cover the larger portion of the outstanding indebtedness, while it is hoped that the balance of \$15,000 may be secured by subscription within a few months.

In planning the building every thought has been toward making the building an attractive and comfortable place for workmen. The palace consists of five stories and a basement, material being gray brick with terra cotta trimmings. In the basement there is a tile-lined swimming tank, 60 x 20, provided with a sand filtration system, shower and tub baths, a gymnasium room, 27 x 50, a smoking room, a large trunk room, and a smaller room for storing small baggage.

On the street floor there is an auditorium with gallery, providing seating capacity for 750 people; a restaurant (where food will be served at the lowest possible price), a barber shop, a drug store, and a labor bureau. On the second

floor, in addition to office rooms, there is a large reading room, and two social rooms which may be thrown together to accommodate larger gatherings. The three upper floors provide 287 bedrooms, 8 x 4, separated by metallic and plaster partitions and built on the plan of the "Mills Hotel" in New York City. Each of the bedroom floors is provided with shower and tub baths, set bowls, and other toilet conveniences. For the sum of 25 cents a night each lodger is provided with a clean, comfortable room, use of toilet facilities, swimming pool, smoking and reading room, and other conveniences furnished in the building.

The Scarcity of Labor.

The further development of the textile industry in the United States is checked by a scarcity of labor with which to operate the machinery. For the last two years a large part of the machinery already installed has been forced into idleness by this scarcity of operatives. Many have left the mills to engage in more congenial or more profitable employment in other industries that are sharing in the present phenomenal prosperity. This scarcity is not confined to any particular section, but extends to every mill in the country. It accounts for the recent general increase of wages in the North and for the reduction of working time in many Southern mills. In the South wages have been advancing steadily without attracting public attention. Every manufacturer has sought to remedy the scarcity of operatives by raising wages wherever the shortage was most acute. This has been going on so steadily and quietly that the Southern manufacturers themselves are surprised by the extent of the advance disclosed by comparing present wages with those paid two or three years ago. Moreover the increase of wages has not been accompanied by any increase in the labor supply, because employers of labor in other industries have made still greater advances, and in many cases higher wages have led the operatives to work less time. — *Textile World Record*.

Commercial Education.

Frank V. Thompson, principal of Boston's new Commercial High School, spent several months in Europe last Summer making a thorough examination of the commercial schools in Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and other countries.

As a result of his investigation Mr. Thompson says that the commercial schools in Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, Belgium, and France have all passed the experimental stage and are component parts of the educational scheme of those countries and are considered especially valuable. In Italy the Government usually encourages the extension of such instruction by granting large subsidies. The same is true of Switzerland, but to a greater extent. In that country there is scarcely a city of even moderate size which has not a flourishing school of commerce. The town of Neuchatel, which has less than 18,000 inhabitants, has a commercial school of 700 boys and young men. The fine building, with its splendid equipment of laboratories, is superior, Mr. Thompson says, to any school

structure in Boston, and he was surprised to find about two dozen American boys in that school receiving their education for business careers in the United States. Austria has a very complete system, Vienna alone having fifteen lower commercial schools and four higher schools of commerce. There were 1,200 young men in one of these schools visited by Mr. Thompson. — *United States Consular Reports*.

New York Y. M. C. A. Courses in Building Construction.

The Young Men's Christian Association of New York City has enlarged its courses in building construction. At present builders are greatly needing men with knowledge of general building construction, estimating, and drafting. The new classes will include thorough instruction in these branches. They are designed for superintendents, foremen, clerks, mechanics, and all those connected with such work who need training in order to rise to positions of importance. Special attention will be devoted to the modern lofty steel skeleton building. A set of lectures with illustrations taken from actual building operations will be given to enable men to understand every part of its erection. In this practice work, plans and specifications of actual structures will be used to make the student competent to figure and work for plans on projected work. The instruction will include general building, excavating, shoring and underpinning, masonry, structural steel and ornamental iron work, carpentry, plastering, sheet metal work, glazing, hardware and reinforced concrete construction. The courses will continue for four months. — *Iron Age*.

A New Course of Instruction at Pratt Institute.

The department of science and technology of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., this year offers a new course in machine construction, intended primarily to train its graduates to fill positions as foremen and assistant superintendents in machine shops or in kindred manufacturing plants in which machine work is an operation of first importance. It is preferred that applicants for this course be men with some considerable previous experience in machine work, it being the idea to combine with their practical experience the theory underlying it. The course of study covers machine construction, tool making, lectures on machine shop practice, mechanical drawing, practical mathematics, foundry work and forging. A unique feature in the curriculum of the Institute is the provision for developing in the students the ability to direct the work of others by giving each one practice at being a foreman, first over one or two of his classmates, and finally he is given a chance to lay out and direct the work of a larger number. — *Iron Age*.

An Evening Industrial School for Negroes.

In a recent number of the *Southern Workman*, William L. Bulkeley pointed out the good effects of an evening school for negroes opened in New York a year ago. He concluded by saying: "This school has served the purpose already of directing the attention of the community

to the better side of the negro question. There is an alarming influx of negroes into New York City, many of whom are the dregs of society; there is a constant stream of thoughtless, indifferent young men and women from the South, who are attracted by the name North, without realizing the hopelessness of their situation here. This mass of idle, lazy, worthless negroes who live by criminal practices, draws down upon the head of the whole race the execrations of the community. It is an admitted fact that prejudice against the negro in New York has increased immensely in the last few years, and it is attributed largely to the vicious lives of thousands of negroes who have crowded into New York from the South and elsewhere. When the civil and educational authorities awake to the fact that it is money well spent to train in industrial activities these thousands of negro migrants; when employers and labor unions realize that opening the door of opportunity is at least partially closing the door to vice and crime, we may expect that the deplorable condition of the negroes will begin to be only a matter of history. 'The idle man's head is the devil's workshop.' Give the head something worth thinking about; give the hand something worth doing; offer to the man something worth hoping for; then expect a harvest of great industry and more widespread decency."

Reclassification of Trade Statistics.

The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor has substituted for its former classifications of exports and imports, adopted many years ago when our foreign trade was of a different character from what it is now, a classification more in keeping with present conditions of production and consumption. The former classification of exports into great groups, such as products of agriculture, manufactures, mines, forests, and fisheries, was adopted thirty-six years ago, when natural products were our chief line of export, while the import classification was adopted twenty years ago when the articles forming the bulk of trade were different from to-day. The new classification, which is applied to both imports and exports, is as follows:

- (a.) Foodstuffs in a natural state and food animals.
- (b.) Foodstuffs partly or wholly prepared.
- (c.) Crude materials for use in manufacturing.
- (d.) Manufactures for further use in manufacturing.
- (e.) Manufactures ready for consumption.
- (f.) Miscellaneous.

Perhaps the most serious criticism that may be offered as to the above classification is that it fails to give as accurate an idea of the source of these products as did the former classification, and rather tends to give predominance to manufacturing and kindred lines of industry, while minimizing the old-time importance of agriculture as the country's basic industry. The fact that the new system corresponds with that adopted by the Census Department, thus rendering possible comparisons of production with foreign trade, gives it strong support; furthermore, the possibility of making a comparison of our foreign

trade with that of many leading European countries is another point in favor of the new system.

As the list of products reported upon by the Bureau of Statistics is not changed, but only the classification thereof altered, it might be well, by means of a cross index, to maintain permanently in use both the old and the new classifications, thus allowing the fullest scope of investigation for those desiring information along either line in the future. — *Bradstreet's*, September 1, 1906.

Labor Program of the National Association of the Granite Industries of the United States.

The first step for a district to take when entering into dealings with a group of workmen for the purpose of settling questions of mutual concern should be to execute with such group an instrument which shall recite:

1. That the parties thereto jointly agree that no question of mutual concern shall be acted upon independently by either party, but shall be referred for settlement to a joint committee.

2. That the parties to the instrument will not sanction a strike or lockout under any circumstances.

3. That where the districts of this association have been established the formulation of working rules, bills of prices, etc., shall not be undertaken with an organization of workmen by any individual employer connected with said district, but shall annually be considered by a joint committee which shall secure equal representation to each party, *i.e.*, the District Association of each interest, the findings of these committees to be referred to the central bodies in time for annual meetings, and the decision of said bodies to be final and binding upon all concerned. Where no district is established, individual members are to act in same manner.

4. That should any misunderstanding, difference of opinion or dispute occur in any quarry, yard, or shop, as to the application of working rules or bills of prices, the matter is to be first considered, and settled, if possible, by the workmen of that quarry, yard, or shop in conference with their employer; failing adjustment the matter to be referred to a jury composed of an equal number of workmen and employers in the district where the difficulty occurs; failing settlement by this jury the whole matter to be referred to this central body and the central body of the workmen, for determination, through their respective committees.

5. That should either party, or any individual member of either party, to the said instrument fail to conform to the specifications in the agreement as to working rules or bills of prices, they shall be responsible in damages to the parties aggrieved, and should any individual of either party aid or abet any person in breaking working rules, or in failing to conform to bills of prices agreed upon in due form, then said individual also becomes liable in damages; all such damages to be assessed by a court at law.

New Canadian Immigration Law.

The Dominion Parliament, during its recent session, passed an act relative to immigration and immigrants, which consisted of a consolidation and amendment, in greatly extended form,

of the legislation previously in existence dealing with this subject. The original immigration act had been in force for some thirty-five years, and the heavy immigration movement of the past five seasons, especially during 1905 and the present year, had rendered necessary a number of important alterations and extensions, especially in the power of governmental regulation.

The term "Immigrant" is defined as including any steerage passenger, "work-a-way," members of the crew who have ceased to be such if within any class liable to exclusion, as well as persons arriving by train or other mode of travel, but not as including tourists or persons who have previously resided in Canada. The term "Passenger" was made to include all persons carried in a vessel, train or vehicle, except crew, troops, or persons who are unlawfully on board. (Secs. 5-9.)

Orders and regulations shall be issued on the recommendation of the Minister of Interior for the general purpose of carrying out the act for the better attainment of its objects.

The Government is given power to prohibit absolutely any specified class of immigrants whatever, if considered necessary or expedient. (Sec. 31.) The power is conferred upon immigration officers named by the Minister to act as a board of inquiry as to the case of any immigrant seeking admission into Canada, an appeal to the Minister being allowed. (Sec. 32.) Transportation companies must, on the demand of the superintendent of immigration, deport any prohibited immigrant which they have brought into Canada to the country from which he was brought within two years. (Sec. 33.) Special provision is also made for the deportation of any immigrant committing a crime involving moral turpitude or having become an inmate of a jail or hospital or charitable institution within two years of his arrival, at the expense of the immigrant, if he is able to pay, and, if not, at the expense of the municipality in which he was last regularly resident, or of the Department of the Interior. The transportation company which brought the immigrant to the country is required to return him without receiving the usual payment for such carriage. (Sec. 20.)

The Government is given power to require, by regulation, that an immigrant must possess a specified minimum amount of money before being allowed to land in Canada. (Sec. 18.)

A bill of health in prescribed form must be furnished by every master of a vessel landing immigrants in Canada to the immigration agent at the port of entry. (Sec. 19.) In addition the agent may request the medical officer of the department to inspect the vessel before permitting the immigrants to land. (Secs. 23-25.) Provision is also made for the examination of immigrants by the medical officer, who is required to stamp the ship or railway ticket of immigrants passed, and to detain any not admissible under the act, the immigration agent to be responsible for all persons thus detained, though the medical officer is empowered to make arrangements, with the consent of the Minister, for the care of detained immigrants on ship board, when proper facilities on shore do not exist. (Secs. 11-17.)

Passengers are permitted to remain on board after arrival only 24 hours, instead of 48 hours as previously.

Each adult passenger shall have 15 clear feet on each deck, instead of 12 clear feet, on the lower or platform deck as previously. The master may allow passengers to leave the vessel only on permission of the immigration agent of the port.

The penalty clauses of the act are considerably extended and the various misdemeanors to which they apply more carefully and minutely defined. Where the deportation of a father or head of a family is ordered, all persons dependent upon him may be deported at the same time. — *Labour Gazette, Canada.*

The Sweating System in London.

The London *Commercial Intelligence* tells of a remarkable exhibition of sweating industries in that city. The idea originated in Germany, where an exhibition of articles made by home workers, under oppressive conditions, was given in Berlin in March, 1904. The London exhibition included only home industries, the object being to acquaint the public with the evil effects of the sweating system. The *Commercial Intelligence* says that it would be impossible to get together a more ghastly array of witnesses of man's inhumanity to man than is to be found in the bare facts of the prices paid to the unfortunate fellow creatures under the sweating system.

New Sliding Wage Scale, Midland, England.

The sliding scale adopted by the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board in 1889 terminated on February 4, 1905, on the request of the iron and steel workers in the Midlands. A new sliding scale was approved and adopted on June 14, 1906, by a committee which had been appointed to draw up a new scale. In order to determine a proper scale for adoption the books of 17 firms were examined by accountants who were instructed to take out the weights and selling prices of all classes of iron, as rolled and delivered from the mills, sold and marketed, but excluding any iron which had been used up in other departments, and excluding all steel. The months of March and April, 1906, were taken together as the first bi-monthly period, and the selling prices for that period were taken as a basis in determining future wages.

Under this new wage scale puddlers were to receive a minimum wage of one shilling (24.3 cents) a ton and two shillings (48.6 cents) for each £1 sterling (\$4.87) a ton in selling price of iron. For prices involving a fractional part of £1 sterling an intermediate scale is provided. The rate of premium in the former scale discarded was one shilling sixpence (36.4 cents) as compared with the premium rate of two shillings (48.6 cents) now adopted. No change was made in the former scale of wages for millmen.

The new wage scale includes all claims for "Northern Extras" and will continue in operation for two years and, after that period, may be terminated by either side after three months' notice. — *The Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London.*

Discrimination against Foreign Students.

According to Consul-General Richard Guenther, of Frankfort, Germany, from time to time

the German press and trade organs contained declarations inimical to permitting foreigners to participate in the studies at German institutions of learning, technical schools, and to be employed in or visit factories, etc.

The last annual report of the new Commercial Academy of Leipzig says that of the 720 students attending its courses 382 were natives and subjects of foreign countries. The *Cologne Gazette*, considered a semi-official organ of the German Government, comments upon this statistical statement as follows:

The proportion of foreign to German scholars gives occasion for serious reflection. The consolation frequently expressed that by these foreigners educated in Germany our commercial relations with foreign countries will be improved is very meager and cannot be maintained in the least, because it will be the natural endeavor of these foreigners to use the knowledge obtained here against German competition abroad. This is the case also in regard to our technical schools. Many of our export firms, manufacturing machines and other lines of goods, complain of the competition which is thus educated and raised, to their loss, at our high schools. Though we have little desire to hinder the spread of the results of scientific research, theoretical or practical, even toward foreign countries, still we do not deem it consistent with the principle of national education and national attainments to admit foreigners more than is strictly necessary for our national institutions of learning. The inundation of the Commercial Academy at Leipzig by foreigners exhibits in this respect a very unsatisfactory picture. As a new commercial high school is soon to be opened at Berlin, it were well to reflect beforehand on the basic principle of admitting foreign students. — *United States Consular Reports*.

Decoration for Servants in Belgium.

Upon the proposition of the Minister of Industry and Labor a royal decree was issued June 15, 1906, extending the provisions of the royal decrees of November 7, 1847, and February 28, 1861, instituting a decoration in two classes for operatives and mechanics, as well as for captains of fishing-boats, and for fishermen, who, in addition to recognized skill, are of irreproachable conduct; and extending the provisions of the royal decree of March 9, 1863, determining the form of this distinction.

The recent decree provides that the second class of the decoration instituted by the royal decrees of November 7, 1847, and February 28, 1861, may be awarded to personal and domestic servants of irreproachable conduct who for an uninterrupted period of at least 25 years shall have served with fidelity and devotion the same masters or the same family. The Minister of Industry and Labor is charged with the execution of the decrees. — *Revue du Travail, Brussels*.

Insurance against Loss of Employment.

Switzerland has taken the lead in developing insurance of workpeople against loss of employment. A recent issue of the German Imperial Labor Gazette (*Reichsarbeitsblatt*) contains an account of the development of this system of insurance, from which it appears there are dif-

ferent forms at present in operation. Under the compulsory system established by the Swiss government at Basle the insured are divided into two classes, factory employees and building trades operatives. The premiums paid by the insured are graded according to the wages earned. The employers pay two cents weekly for each factory employee, and four cents for each employee in the building trades. The insured is entitled to draw an allowance from the insurance company only when out of work under certain conditions. No claim is allowed under the following conditions:

1. Loss of work through strikes and lockouts.
2. Voluntary giving up of work.
3. Certain conduct of the insured.
4. Sickness and accident.
5. Refusal to accept work without good reasons.

These exceptions are designed to limit the payment of relief to those cases where the insured is willing and able to work, but is unable to find employment. — *Textile World Record*.

New Legislation in Norway Relative to Employment Offices and Aid for the Unemployed.

Two laws providing State aid for agencies dealing with the unemployed have recently received Royal sanction in Norway. The first of these laws provides for the establishment of free public labor registries in all such towns and communes as shall be determined by Royal Decree. Each registry must be controlled by a board consisting of employers and workpeople in equal numbers, together with a chairman not connected with any local industrial undertaking in either of these capacities. Persons elected as members of such boards are bound to accept office, and to serve for three years. All requisite charges for stationery, printed matter, and use of telephone and telegraph are to be paid by the State, but all other expenses must be defrayed by the local authority alone, except in localities having a population of 30,000 or less, in which cases the State will refund a certain proportion of the amount spent on the salaries of the registry officials, the proportion varying from one-tenth where the population is between 25,000 and 30,000 to seven-tenths where the population does not exceed 3,000.

The registries will continue their operations during strikes or lockouts, but either party to a dispute may, prior to the stoppage of work, furnish the registry with particulars on the subject, in which case the registry shall draw up and post on the premises a notice announcing the date and cause of stoppage of work and the occupations affected.

The second of the new laws provides that the State shall refund, to any unemployed benefit fund which complies with certain prescribed conditions, one-fourth of the amount which it pays to its members in unemployed benefits. Of the expense thus incurred by the State in any given year, two-thirds must be refunded by the local authorities of the place in which the recipients of the unemployed benefit last resided for a period of six consecutive months within the previous five years. This law took effect in October, 1906, and will not remain in force after December 31, 1911.

STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

Textile Products of Massachusetts.

From the returns of the Federal Census of Manufactures in 1905, the following data relating to the textile industry in Massachusetts for the year ending December 31, 1904, have been selected.

The total value of textile products manufactured in 1905 was \$271,369,816, an amount greater than that shown by any other State in the Union. In the three largest branches of this industry—cotton goods, worsted goods, and woolen goods—Massachusetts also led every State. In 1905 the combined textile industry represented 34.6 per cent of the total manufacturing capital for the State, 32.5 per cent of the number of wage-earners, and 24.1 per cent of the value of products. With one more establishment in 1905 than in 1900, there was a gain in capital of 21.3 per cent; in number of wage-earners of 5.4 per cent; in wages, 11.9 per cent; and value of products, 25.6 per cent.

The manufacture of cotton goods was the most important branch of the textile manufactures in the State, contributing products to the value of \$129,171,449, or 47.6 per cent of the total value of all textile products and 11.5 per cent of the total products for all manufacturing industries in the State. Worsted goods, with a product valued at \$51,973,944, or 19.1 per cent of the total value of textile goods, and woolen goods, with a product valued at \$44,653,940, or 16.5 per cent of the total value of textile goods, held second and third places respectively. Other textile products, including dyeing and finishing textiles, hosiery and knit goods, carpets and rugs, silk and silk goods, felt goods, felt hats, shoddy, and cotton small wares comprised the balance of textile products, together furnishing a total value of \$44,561,483, or 21.8 per cent of the total value of textile goods.

New Bedford Cotton Mills.

New Bedford, which is distinctly a cotton goods centre, has added during the past year 194,000 spindles and 4,600 looms for the manufacture of high quality goods. Yet New Bedford furnishes only about 25 per cent of the cloth required by American trade, while mills in other parts of the country produce about 10 per cent of the demand. England and the Continent supply the balance, and they are obliged to purchase raw cotton from America which they return in the shape of cloth, thus paying duties and various expenses which must reduce their profits. It would seem, therefore, that there were many opportunities for new firms here, or at least for increased business, even though much progress has been made in the past year, as shown in the

following tables. About \$4,000,000 has been expended in erecting additions to factories, of which over \$1,000,000 was for new buildings. With the exception of new capital raised by the Beacon, Bristol, Taber, and Page Manufacturing Companies, these expenses have been met from the earnings and have been charged to operating expenses of the companies. The Superintendent of Buildings filed the following estimate of cost of additions erected:

NAME OF MILL.	Additions	Cost
City Mfg. Corp., . . .	cotton shed, . .	\$20,000
Beacon Mfg. Co., . . .	cotton shed, . .	12,000
Beacon Mfg. Co., . . .	boiler house, . .	22,000
Beacon Mfg. Co., . . .	weave shed, . .	60,000
Kilburn Mill, . . .	yarn mill, . .	25,000
Nonquit Mill, . . .	new, . .	250,000
Taber Mills, . . .	new, . .	200,000
Page Mfg. Co., . . .	new, . .	300,000
Pierce Mfg. Corp., . .	cotton shed, . .	6,000
Pierce Mfg. Corp., . .	spinning mill, . .	20,000
Hathaway Mfg. Co., . .	card and combing, . .	22,000
Dartmouth Mfg. Corp., .	weave shed, . .	20,000
Bristol Mfg. Co., . . .	spinning and weaving, . .	60,000
Wamsutta Mills, . . .	cotton shed, . .	10,000
Wamsutta Mills, . . .	weave shed, . .	50,000
TOTAL, . . .		\$1,075,000

The distribution in the past year of new looms installed among the several mills is as follows:

NAME OF MILL.	Number of Spindles	Number of Looms
Beacon Mfg. Co., . . .	2,400	120
Page Mfg. Co., . . .	50,000	1,200
Dartmouth Mfg. Corp., .	—	500
Bristol Mfg. Co., . . .	15,000	800
Taber Mills, . . .	—	1,000
Pierce Mfg. Corp., . . .	12,000	—
Wamsutta Mills, . . .	—	1,000
Manomet Mills, . . .	100,000	—
Kilburn Mill, . . .	15,000	—
TOTALS, . . .	194,000	4,600

— Wool and Cotton Reporter.

Production of Coal in 1905.

The Annual Report of the Geological Survey shows that our output of coal last year amounted to 392,919,341 short tons, valued at the mines at \$476,756,963, which means, on the one hand, that the production exceeded that of 1904 by 11.7 per cent, and, on the other, that the money value of the total tonnage increased 7.3 per cent over the figures for 1904. — *Bradstreet's*.

Chinese Boycott a Failure.

The Chinese boycott was a failure, according to Consul-General James L. Rodgers, at Shanghai, in a report to the Bureau of Manufactures. In spite of the efforts of the anti-foreign element, American imports into China, he says, increased more than two and two-thirds times in 1905 over the previous year. The increase was especially noticeable in cotton fabrics.

The total value of China's foreign trade in 1905 was \$492,741,961 gold. The value of imports shows an increase of 30 per cent, while the exports decreased five per cent, as compared with those of 1904.

The imports from the United States in 1905 were nearly two and two-thirds times larger than those of 1904, while the exports were slightly less, which demonstrates that the boycott could not and did not make any headway against such an avalanche of goods. The importation of cotton manufactures increased enormously, the total value being \$132,350,646 gold.

The import of metals has increased, the principal addition being through copper, which amounted in value to \$22,727,492. Sugar, food-stuffs and luxuries increased largely, the war accounting for much of the latter. Flour importations remained practically unchanged, the total, including re-exportations, being 131,789,733 pounds in 1905, against 125,259,600 in 1904. The imports of American flour at Canton and southern ports, through the boycott, decreased from 94,266,666 pounds to 88,270,000. Australian flour gained a market of small extent in the south, but the loss to American flour was offset by the great demands at Shanghai for re-exportation for the seat of war and to take care of the natural market caused by the shutting down of the Manchurian mills.

Kerosene oil importation was 153,471,811 gallons, 3,319,104 gallons less than in 1904, an abnormal year. Of this amount American oil contributed 52 per cent, an increase of two per cent over the preceding year.

As an indication of a market which is sure to expand greatly, take the importation of railway materials, which increased from \$4,383,915 to \$5,263,119, and in addition there was a separate importation of \$365,000 worth of steel rails. In machinery there has also been a great increase, the amount rising from \$1,941,828 to \$3,895,957. — *Bradstreet's*.

Advance of Wages in Lancashire.

According to an estimate made by a leading English cotton manufacturer, the cotton mill operatives of Lancashire are now receiving annually \$8,262,000 more in wages than in 1900. The recent advance of 5 per cent in the wages of card-room operatives and spinners amounted to nearly \$1,500,000 a year. The new schedule went into effect in May with the agreement that there was to be no change in wages for at least twelve months. There was a further understanding between the employers and spinners that an endeavor would be made on both sides to complete the conciliation scheme by which wages might be adjusted automatically to conform with the varying conditions of the cotton trade. — *Textile World Record*.

Changes in Rates of Wages and Hours of Labor in the United Kingdom in 1905.

The Thirteenth Annual Report of the Labour Department of the British Board of Trade treats of the changes in rates of wages and hours of labor in the United Kingdom in 1905 and in the first half of 1906, and also presents summary tables for the years 1896-1905. The facts which we present below refer only to those groups of trades in which the number of workpeople are known, although the report above referred to furnishes additional material relating to three other classes of workpeople, viz.: agricultural laborers, seamen, and railway servants, of which the numbers affected by changes in rates of wages and hours of labor are not known.

During the four years 1901-1904 there had been a total net decrease of \$1,105,500 in the aggregate weekly wages of those affected by reported changes, and the first six months of 1905 showed a continuation of the decline, but in the last six months of that year there was an upward movement, and the result for the year was a net increase of about \$10,000. The rise in wages observed in the latter half of 1905 continued through the first six months of 1906, and a net increase in wages of \$129,500 was reported for that period.

The net result of the changes in wages during the past 10 years, 1896-1905, has been an increase in the aggregate weekly wages of more than \$1,000,000, while the net decrease reported in the last five years, 1901-1905, has barely exceeded the rise of the year 1900 alone.

Most of the changes in weekly wages in 1905 were quite insignificant, the only important ones being an increase of \$18,300 in the textile trades and a decrease of \$65,600 in the coal mining industry, which latter industry was the predominating factor in producing the net decrease in weekly wages paid in 1905. Thus, if the coal mining industry, in which very large numbers are employed and in which there has been great oscillation of wages, were eliminated from consideration, the year 1905 would have shown a net increase in weekly wages paid of \$55,000 instead of the decrease of about \$10,000 actually shown.

The changes in rates of wages in 1905 affected nearly 659,000 workpeople, of whom 319,000 received increases amounting to \$79,500 a week, and nearly 250,000 (including over 200,000 in the mining industry) sustained decreases amounting to about \$90,000, while about 120,000 sustained both increases and decreases, which left their wages at the same level as at the beginning of the year.

The above figures relate only to changes due to alterations in rates of wages, changes in *conditions* caused by fluctuations in the available employment not being included in the scope of the report.

In 1905, the proportion of workpeople whose changes in wages were arranged by conciliation, arbitration, wages-boards, and other conciliatory agencies amounted to 44.1 per cent of the total; by other methods (direct arrangement, negotiation, etc.), 51 per cent, and under sliding scale arrangements, 4.6 per cent. The changes in wages of 97.9 per cent of the workpeople affected were arranged without stoppage of work.

The changes in hours of labor recorded in 1905 affected 95,985 persons, of whom 90,179 had their working hours reduced. Over 92,000 of the total number affected by change in hours of labor were employed in the building trades. The net effect of all the changes was a reduction of 65,265 hours in the weekly working time of the workpeople affected.

During the first six months of the year 1906, the changes in wages reported have resulted in a net increase of about \$129,500 in the weekly wages of 843,325 workpeople, the advances being chiefly in the textile, coal mining and engineering, and shipbuilding industries. During this same period 25,917 workpeople obtained a reduction of hours amounting in the aggregate to 41,902 hours a week, while 74 had their hours increased by 132 hours a week.

German Labor Colonies in 1905.

Labor colonies in Germany are institutions for the reception and employment of unemployed workmen. The first of these colonies was founded in 1882, and there are now 33 in the German Empire and one in the United Kingdom, under the control of a Central Board.

During the year 1905, 10,009 persons were received, while over 2,172 persons were refused admission for various reasons. The number of persons who left the colonies in 1905 was 10,055, of whom 5,523 left of their own desire, 1,865 went to situations elsewhere, 1,369 were dismissed for misconduct, laziness, or inefficiency, while 1,298 left for other reasons. The length of stay of those in the colonies on December 31, 1905, varied considerably. Of the 3,835 in the colonies at that time, 72 per cent had been there less than four months, while only 268 had been there over a year.

On December 31, 1905, the total accommodation in the colonies was for 4,256 persons, an increase of 113 over the previous year. The aggregate number of days worked by colonists in 1905 amounted to 87,272. — *Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London.*

Pawnshops in Brussels.

Consul-General George W. Roosevelt reports that the official report of the Brussels pawnshop for 1905 shows a capital employed of \$387,181 and profits made during the year of only \$4,966. The amount of loans on pawns was \$1,253,173. In 1904 the amount loaned exceeded the amount for 1905 by about \$96,500. — *United States Consular Reports.*

Strikes and Lockouts in Holland, 1905.

From a report on strikes and lockouts in Holland recently issued by the Dutch Central Statistical Bureau the following table has been taken. This table summarizes for the principal trades the number of disputes in 1905, the number of persons directly affected by those disputes, and the number of days lost by the workpeople directly affected:

TRADES.	Number of Disputes	Number of Persons Directly Affected	Number of Days Lost by Persons Directly Affected
Buildings,	38	2,144	47,893
Food preparations,	39	509	9,736
Transportation,	18	1,260	8,126
Chemicals, glass, and pottery,	10	2,389	3,386
Textiles,	8	211	2,559
Diamonds and precious stones,	3	68	172
All others,	16	783	6,690
TOTALS,	132	7,364	78,562

From the above table it will be observed that in 1905 the building trades and food preparation trades furnished the largest number of disputes (38 and 39 respectively) and in those trades the greatest numbers of days were lost (47,893 and 9,736 days respectively). The greatest number of persons directly affected were employed in the building trades (2,144 persons) and in the chemical, glass, and pottery trades (2,389), although 2,000 persons in this latter group were locked out for one day only.

There were 132 disputes recorded in 1905 which directly affected 7,364 persons who lost 78,562 days of work as result of these disputes.

Of the 132 disputes in 1905, 49 were terminated in favor of the employers, 25 in favor of the workpeople, 55 by compromise, and, in three cases, the results were unknown. The proportion of disputes terminated by compromise increased from 30 per cent in 1904 to 42 per cent in 1905. Labor disputes, though more frequent, were on the whole far less extensive in 1905 than in 1904. — *Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London.*

Strikes and Lockouts in Austria, 1904.

From a report recently issued by the Austrian Labor Department the following statistics for the year 1904 are taken:

In 1904 there were 414 strikes reported, involving 64,227 people who lost 606,629 working days. The number of strikes, the number of strikers, and the number of days lost were greater than in any year since 1900 — the year in which a great strike occurred in the mining industry. In addition to the actual strikers there were 9,301 workpeople who were thrown out of work owing to strikes, although not themselves on strike. These people lost 60,029 days.

The following table shows the number of strikers and the number of days lost by strikers in the trades most affected by strikes in 1904:

INDUSTRIES.	Number of Strikers	Number of Days Lost	Percentages of Strikers in Each Industry to Total Strikers
Mining,	19,614	184,378	30.5
Building trades,	15,967	116,950	24.9
Chemical, glass, and pottery,	5,700	77,158	8.9
Metal, engineering, etc.,	5,611	46,198	8.7
Other industries,	17,335	181,945	27.0
TOTALS,	64,227	606,629	100.0

From the above table it appears that the industries most affected were mining and the building trades, the percentage of strikers in those industries to the total number on strike being respectively 30.5 and 24.9.

Strikes for the following causes affected the number of workpeople as stated: For an increase of wages, 69,158; against a decrease of wages, 3,128; for other causes, 21,472. Strikes terminated by compromise affected 41.36 per

cent of the total number of strikers involved; strikes terminated in favor of the employers affected 40.07 per cent of the strikers; while those terminated in favor of the workpeople affected 18.57 per cent of the strikers.

The six lockouts in 1904 affected 23,472 workpeople. Of these lockouts the only one of great importance was a dispute in the building trades at Vienna, affecting 23,305 workpeople. — *Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London.*

MAGAZINE ARTICLES ON LABOR TOPICS, 1906.

The following list of magazine articles on topics relating to labor, industrial, and sociological matters of interest covers articles appearing in 44 of the more prominent periodicals during the year 1906.

Apprentices:

Apprenticeship system in America. L. R. Burlingame. *Cassier's Magazine*, v. 31, p. 72 (Nov.).

Modern adaptation of the apprenticeship system. O. M. Becker. *Engineering Magazine*, v. 32, p. 169 (Nov.); p. 321 (Dec.).

School for railway apprentices. C. Warman. *World To-day*, v. 10, p. 99 (Jan.).

Child Labor:

Business man's view of child labor. S. W. Woodward. *Charities*, v. 27, p. 800 (Mar. 3).

Same. *Ann. Am. Acad.*,¹ v. 27, p. 361 (Mar.). Can the State afford to pay the cost of overworking its children? *Charities*, v. 15, p. 602 (Feb. 3).

Child labor and family disintegration. O. R. Lovejoy. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 748 (Sep. 27).

Child labor, compulsory education, and race suicide. W. French. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 35 (Jul.).

Cry of the children. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 461 (Feb. 22).

England:

Cry of the children. *Quarterly Review*, v. 205, p. 29 (Jul.).

Same. *Eclectic Magazine*, v. 147, p. 443 (Nov.).

Study in degeneracy. A. J. McKelway. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 312 (Mar.).

Grind behind the holidays. E. Markham. *Cosmopolitan*, v. 42, p. 143 (Dec.).

Human view of child labor. G. Taylor. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 434 (Jan. 6).

Overwork, idleness, or industrial education. W. Noyes. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 342 (Mar.).

Parental responsibility. G. Taylor. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 354 (Mar.).

Past and present arguments against child labor. J. G. Brooks. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 281 (Mar.).

Child Labor — Continued.

Problem. A. J. McKelway. *Science*, n. s., v. 23, p. 613 (Apr. 20).

Report of the Massachusetts commission on industrial and technical education. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 99 (May 19).

United States:

Child labor and woman suffrage. F. Kelley. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 622 (Mar. 17).

Child labor in the coal mines. O. R. Lovejoy. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 293 (Mar.).

Child labor in the glass industry. O. R. Lovejoy. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 300 (Mar.).

Child labor in the Southern cotton mills. A. J. McKelway. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 259 (Mar.).

Child labor then and now, 1886-1903. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 746 (Mar. 29).

Cosmopolitan readers agree that this disgrace must go. *Cosmopolitan*, v. 42, p. 109 (Nov.).

Demand for a children's bureau. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 433 (Jan. 6).

Federal government and the working children. F. Kelley. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 289 (Mar.).

From school to work in Chicago. A. E. Nichols. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 221 (May 12).

Hoe-man in the making. E. Markham. *Cosmopolitan*, v. 41, p. 480 (Sep.); p. 567 (Oct.); v. 42, p. 20 (Nov.).

Meeting of the national child labor committee, Dec., 1905. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 371 (Mar.).

Meeting the poverty excuse for child labor. G. A. Hall. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 527 (Jan. 20).

Movement in the South. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 847 (Mar. 10).

National child labor meeting, Philadelphia-Washington. S. M. Lindsay. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 367 (Dec. 16).

¹ The abbreviation *Ann. Am. Acad.* is used for the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*.

Child Labor — UNITED STATES — Continued.

- National disgrace. A. Lewis. *Overland Monthly*, v. 48, p. 166 (Sep.).
- Same. S. M. Lindsay. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 28, p. 301 (Sep.).
- National problem. S. M. Lindsay. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 331 (Mar.).
- Operation of the Illinois child labor law. J. Addams. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 327 (Mar.).
- Operation of the Wisconsin child labor law. E. W. Frost. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 357 (Mar.).
- Organized labor's attitude towards child labor. S. Gompers. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 337 (Mar.).
- Physical and physiological effects. G. M. Kober. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 285 (Mar.).
- Study in degeneracy. A. J. McKelway. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 312 (Mar.).
- Tragic significance of cheap bottles. *Current Literature*, v. 41, p. 218 (Aug.).
- Washington conditions. C. P. Neill. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 795 (Mar. 3).
- Same. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 270 (Mar.).
- Waste of children. H. G. Wells. *Harper's Weekly*, v. 50, p. 1132 (Aug. 11).
- Welfare work and child labor in Southern cotton mills. A. J. McKelway. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 271 (Nov. 10).

Child Labor Laws:

- Belgium: Law of 1889. F. H. McLean and C. Maxweiler. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 28, p. 303 (Sep.).
- Factory laws for women and children. *Ladies' Home Journal*, v. 23, p. 19 (Mar.).
- United States:
- Agitation for legislation. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 382 (Feb. 24).
- Child labor laws for the District of Columbia. H. J. Harris. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 364 (Mar.).
- Intelligently and intelligibly. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 747 (Mar. 3).
- Judge-made ignorance in Pennsylvania. F. Kelley. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 189 (May 5).
- Laws passed in 1905. L. D. Clark. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 325 (May).
- New child labor law in Georgia. S. M. Lindsay. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 537 (Sep. 1).
- Pennsylvania law. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 659 (Feb. 10).
- Proposed law for the District of Columbia. S. M. Lindsay. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 755 (Mar. 3).
- Provisions of the Georgia law. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 872 (Aug. 18).
- Some ethical gains through legislation. F. Kelley. *Nation*, v. 83, p. 64 (Jul. 19).

Conciliation:

- Conciliation and arbitration in trade disputes. I. H. Mitchell. *Independent* (Jun.).
- Settlement of labor disputes in Canada. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 261 (Jun. 2).

Co-operation:

- Academic co-operative factory. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 245 (Aug.).

Co-operation — Continued.

- Advance in voluntary co-operation. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 200 (Aug.).
- Agricultural co-operation. A. E. S. Beard. *World To-day*, v. 10, p. 548 (May).
- Apple industry in Canada. R. H. Coats. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, v. 21, p. 136 (Nov.).
- College co-operative stores in America. L. Cross. *Arena*, v. 35, p. 379 (Apr.).
- Same. *Review of Reviews*, v. 33, p. 624 (May).
- Co-operation the way out. C. S. Hartwell. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 339 (Oct. 6).
- History of co-operation. G. J. Holyoake. *Nation*, v. 83, p. 170 (Aug. 23).
- Recent growth of co-operation in Ireland. D. A. McCabe. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, v. 20, p. 547 (Aug.).
- Societies for co-operative agriculture. *Am. Journal of Sociology*, v. 12, p. 235 (Sep.).
- Utilizing corporation laws for co-operative progress. *Arena*, v. 35, p. 537 (May).
- Which — Socialism or corporation? *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 808 (Aug. 4).
- See also references under *Trade Unions* and *Profit-sharing*.
- Employer and Employee:*
- Relation between employer and employee. H. H. Vreeland. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 507 (May).
- Employment Agencies:*
- New York employment agency law upheld. F. L. C. Keating. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 678 (Feb. 10).
- Special employment bureau for the handicapped. T. C. Janeway and C. C. Carstens. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 582 (Feb. 3).
- Employers' Liability:*
- Compensation for accidental injuries to workmen. A. Fox. *World To-day*, v. 11, p. 1107 (Oct.).
- Employers' liability abroad. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 446 (Jul. 7).
- Equivocal rights of labor. G. W. Alger. *Atlantic Monthly*, v. 97, p. 364 (Mar.).
- Industrial accidents: rights and welfare. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 447 (Jul. 7).
- Need for a United States law. *Nation*, v. 82, p. 440 (May 31).
- Was it worth while? J. Lewis. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 902 (Aug. 18).
- Factory System:*
- English mechanic in America. J. Blount. *World's Work*, v. 12, p. 8070 (Oct.).
- From the cotton field to the cotton mill. H. Thompson. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 215 (Jul. 26).
- Manufacturers' point of view. J. T. Lincoln. *Atlantic Monthly*, v. 98, p. 289 (Sep.).
- Modern factory restaurant. F. M. Feiker. *Cassier's Magazine*, v. 30, p. 157 (Jun.).
- Typical systems and their practical results. E. P. Watson. *Engineering Magazine*, v. 31, p. 540 (Jul.).
- Working hours of women in factories. M. Van Kleeck. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 13 (Oct. 6).
- Gilds:*
- Guilds of Florence. E. Staley. *Bookman*, v. 24, p. 371 (Dec.).
- History. D. W. Biddulph. *Westminster Review*, v. 165, p. 401 (Apr.).

Gilds — Continued.

- Industrial organization in the 16th and 17th centuries. G. Unwin. *Political Science Quarterly*, v. 20, p. 736 (Dec.).
- Nuremberg, city of the closed shop. W. D. P. Bliss. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 608 (Mar. 17).
- See also references under *Trade Unions*.

Hours of Labor:

- Eight-hour agitation, strikes and fights in Colorado. J. W. Mills. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 375 (Oct.).
- Eight-hour day in the collieries of the United Kingdom. Am. *Journal of Sociology*, v. 12, p. 286 (Sep.).
- Eight-hour movement in New York. G. G. Groat. *Political Science Quarterly*, v. 21, p. 414 (Sep.).
- Fair-minded open-shop employer. *World's Work*, v. 11, p. 7242 (Feb.).
- Ineffectiveness of night work. *Cassier's Magazine*, v. 31, p. 177 (Dec.).
- Judge Olmstead's decision. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 410 (Aug. 16).
- Labor unrest in England. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 440 (Oct. 27).
- Legal working day of women. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 952 (Oct. 18).
- May the legislature protect women and children? *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 823 (Aug. 11).
- Night work: women and the New York courts. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 183 (Nov. 3).
- Possible solution of some social problems. T. L. Heaton. *Westminster Review*, v. 165, p. 505 (May).
- Shortening of the industrial working day. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 622 (Nov.).
- White slaves. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 391 (Oct. 20).
- Working hours of women in factories. M. Van Kleeck. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 13 (Oct. 6).

Insurance — Workingmen's:

- Insurance of industrial workingmen as an instrument of tuberculosis prevention. A. C. Klebs. *Am. Journal of Sociology*, v. 12, p. 176 (Sep.).
- Insurance for workingmen. F. A. Vanderlip. *North American Review*, v. 181, p. 921 (Dec.).
- Workingmen's insurance. C. R. Henderson. *World To-day*, v. 10, p. 145 (Feb.).
- Workingmen's insurance and industrial solidarity. *American Journal of Sociology*, v. 11, p. 584 (Jan.).
- L'Assicurazione degli operai contro gli infortuni sul lavoro e la sua applicazione all'agricoltura. G. Deganello. *Riforma Soc.* (Jun.).

Labor:

- Balzac on labor. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 615 (Nov.).
- Better methods of compensation for workmen. G. W. Dickie. *Cassier's Magazine*, v. 29, p. 192 (Jan.).
- Bibliography:
Industrial conditions and child labor. *Chautauquan*, v. 42, p. 569 (Feb.).
- Canada:
Aspects of the Canadian labor situation. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 82 (Apr. 7).

Labor — Continued.

- France:
Labor situation in France. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 17 (May 5).
- Great Britain:
Labour problems in Great Britain. T. Good. *Cassier's Magazine*, v. 30, p. 454 (Sep.).
- Burden of the middle classes. S. S. Bullock. *Fortnightly Review*, v. 86, p. 411 (Sep.).
- Improvement of labor conditions. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 95 (Apr. 14).
- Labor party in Australia:
Industrial democracy. A. Henry. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 566 (Nov. 3).
- Labor party in Great Britain:
Aims and aspirations. W. Diack. *Arena*, v. 35, p. 476 (May).
- Arrival of the British labor party. *Review of Reviews*, v. 33, p. 347 (Mar.).
- Labor men in Parliament. *North American Review*, v. 182, p. 617 (Apr.).
- Labor party in England. C. Roberts. *World's Work*, v. 12, p. 7668 (Jun.).
- Labor at the forthcoming election, 1906. J. K. Hardie. *19th Century*, v. 59, p. 12 (Jan.).
- Labourism in Parliament. B. Taylor. *Fortnightly Review*, v. 85, p. 1115 (Jun.).
- Liberalism and labor. *North American Review*, v. 183, p. 931 (Nov. 2).
- Same. C. F. Masterman. *Nineteenth Century*, v. 60, p. 706 (Nov.).
- New power in politics. P. Snowden. *Living Age*, v. 249, p. 778 (Jun. 30).
- Object. S. Brooks. *Harper's Weekly*, v. 50, p. 336 (Mar. 10).
- Party program. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 583 (Mar. 17).
- Simple egoism. *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*, v. 179, p. 844 (Jun.).
- Story of the labor party. L. A. A. Jones. *19th Century*, v. 60, p. 576 (Oct.).
- Unionist view. H. S. Karr. *19th Century*, v. 59, p. 471 (Mar.).
- Labor problem, solving the. F. C. Garvin. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 10 (Jul.).
- Labor question. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 449 (Oct. 27).
- Manufacturers' point of view. J. T. Lincoln. *Atlantic Monthly*, v. 98, p. 289 (Sep.).
- Panama:
Panama canal. J. E. Carr. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 117 (May 19).
- Philippine Islands:
Filipino labor supply. G. H. Guy. *Review of Reviews*, v. 33, p. 317 (Mar.).
- Physical and medical aspects of labor and industry. F. L. Hoffman. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 465 (May).
- Political powers of labor. W. H. Mallock. *19th Century*, v. 60, p. 202 (Aug.).
- Same. *Living Age*, v. 250, p. 579 (Sep. 8).
- Same. *Eclectic Magazine*, v. 147, p. 307 (Oct.).
- Public exhibitions of the conditions of labor. *Charities*, v. 16, p. 579 (Sep. 1).
- Scarcity of Labor. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 1125 (Nov. 8).

Labor — Continued.

Capitale e lavoro in un consorzio obbligatorio per gli zolfi di Sicilia. F. Gallina. *Riforma Soc.* (Jun.).

Laboring Classes:

Alienation of workingmen from the church. *Current Literature*, v. 40, p. 647 (Jun.).

Condition of the German workingman. E. D. Howard. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 65 (Feb.).

Drawing new class lines. *Nation*, v. 83, p. 176 (Aug. 30).

German Workman: a study in national efficiency. W. H. Dawson. *Nation*, v. 83, p. 397 (Nov. 8).

Great Britain:

England's problem of the unemployed. A. C. Laut. *Review of Reviews*, v. 33, p. 40 (Jan.).

Higher education of workingmen. J. A. R. Marriott. *Fortnightly Review*, v. 86, p. 247 (Aug.).

Women's opportunity. G. H. Tuckwell. *Fortnightly Review*, v. 85, p. 546 (Mar.).

Home industry in Belgium. E. Girskov. *Contemporary Review*, v. 90, p. 388 (Sep.); p. 534 (Oct.).

Industrial efficiency. A. Shadwell. *Political Science Quarterly*, v. 21, p. 550 (Sep.).

Same. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 751 (Sep. 27).

Protection and the working classes. *Edinburgh Review*, v. 203, p. 1 (Jan.).

Relation between standards of living and standards of compensation. L. K. Frankel. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 304 (Nov. 17).

Social life and conditions:

Case of the working girl. M. K. Ford. *Critic*, v. 49, p. 122 (Aug.).

Diversions of an industrial town. M. C. Birchenough. *Living Age*, v. 247, p. 600 (Dec. 9).

Is the jungle true? U. Sinclair. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 1129 (May 17).

Unhealthfulness of Packingtown. C. Hedger. *World's Work*, v. 12, p. 7507 (May).

Unemployed and trades unions. D. M. Morrison. *Nineteenth Century*, v. 59, p. 483 (Mar.).

United States:

At the foot of the ladder. F. Hackett. *Reader*, v. 7, p. 358 (Mar.); p. 513 (Apr.).

Development of the American proletariat. W. Sombart. *Am. Journal of Sociology*, v. 12, p. 131 (Jul.).

Whose business is it? J. Bascom. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 614 (Sep. 13).

Work for the unemployed in winter. M. Butler. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 487 (Nov.).

You retainers. W. J. Ghent. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 23 (Jul. 5).

See also references under *Child Labor*, *Strikes*, *Factory Employees*, and *Woman — Employment*.

Labor Disputes:

Compulsory investigation of labor disputes. E. P. Wheeler. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 271 (Jun. 2).

Government trade disputes bill. Clement Edwards. *Nineteenth Century* (Oct.).

Labor Disputes — Continued.

Joint commission plan of preventing industrial conflicts. A. B. Smith. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 531 (May).

Settlement of labor disputes in Canada. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 261 (Jun. 2).

Trade disputes and the law of molestation and conspiracy. J. E. Joel. *Westminster Review*, v. 165, p. 605 (Jun.).

See also references under *Open and Closed Shops*, and *Trade Agreements*.

Labor Laws:

Equivocal rights of labor. G. W. Alger. *Atlantic Monthly*, v. 97, p. 364 (Mar.).

Indirect compulsory education. J. W. Perrin. *Educational Review*, v. 31, p. 383 (Apr.).

Labor laws and labor problems. *Outlook*, v. 84, p. 674 (Nov. 17).

Legal position of German workmen. W. H. Dawson. *Political Science Quarterly*, v. 21, p. 264 (Jun.).

Legislative control of women's work. S. P. Breckinridge. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 107 (Feb.).

Results of New Zealand labor laws. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 846 (Oct. 11).

Statutory regulation of women's employment, codification of statutes. F. P. Mies. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 109 (Feb.).

Zur Handhabung des Koalitionrechtes in Deutschland. H. Göbel. *Archiv. f. Sozialw.*, v. 23, Heft. 1.

See also references under *Child Labor Laws* and *Factory Laws*.

Labor Legislation:

France:

Labor Legislation. *Am. Journal of Sociology*, v. 12, p. 140 (Jul.).

Great Britain:

British government and social legislation. R. Donald. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 326 (Jun. 9).

Labor legislation, international association for, specific objects. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 741 (Mar. 3).

Legal working day for women. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 952 (Oct. 18).

United States:

May the legislature protect women and children? *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 823 (Aug. 11).

Proposed changes in the New York labor laws. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 684 (Feb. 17).

What the law makers did for the workingman in 1905. L. D. Clark. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 315 (May).

Occupations:

Conditions affecting the length of trade life. R. Hunter. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 500 (May).

Dangerous trades. *Am. Journal of Sociology*, v. 11, p. 864 (May).

Employment of women in industries. E. Abbott and S. P. Breckinridge. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 14 (Jan.).

Length of trade life among machinists. J. O'Connell. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 491 (May).

Length of trade life in the glass bottle industry. D. A. Hayes. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 496 (May).

Occupations — Continued.

Physical and medical aspects of labor and industry. F. L. Hoffman. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 465 (May).

What can a young man do? F. W. Rollins. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 1527 (Jun. 28).

Why some boys take to farming. L. H. Bailey. *Century*, v. 72, p. 612 (Aug.).

Old-age Pensions:

Arguments for and against. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 705 (Sep. 20).

France and state pensions. *Nation*, v. 82, p. 169 (Mar. 1).

Old-age pensions in Australia. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 834 (Oct. 4).

Old-age pensions in Australasia. *Nation*, v. 82, p. 96 (Feb. 1).

Socialism in the House of Commons. *Edinburgh Review*, v. 204, p. 288 (Oct.).

Supreme importance. T. Burt. *19th Century Magazine*, v. 60, p. 372 (Sep.).

Open and Closed Shop:

Fair-minded open-shop employer. *World's Work*, v. 11, p. 7242 (Feb.).

Fallacy of the closed shop. G. H. Ellis. *Ann. Am. Acad.*, v. 27, p. 517 (May).

Illegitimate unionism on trial. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 104 (Oct. 6).

New York court decision on employing union or non-union men. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 51 (Jan. 13).

Nuremberg, city of the closed shop. W. D. P. Bliss. *Outlook*, v. 82, p. 608 (Mar. 17).

Printers' strike. *Nation*, v. 82, p. 29 (Jan. 11).

Question of organization. F. Benson. *Reader*, v. 6, p. 603 (Nov., 1905); v. 7, p. 177 (Jan.).

Profit-sharing:

Practical co-operation at Leclaire. A. W. Eads. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 463 (Nov.).

Same. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 728 (Dec.).

Shop betterment and the individual effort method of profit-sharing. H. Emerson. *Engineering Magazine*, v. 30, p. 898 (Mar.).
See also references under *Co-operation*.

Servants:

Problem of domestic service. I. M. Rabinow. *Journal of Political Economy*, v. 14, p. 502 (Oct.).

Servant question in Germany. W. W. Whitelock. *Harper's Bazaar*, v. 40, p. 467 (May).

Vanishing relation. *Independent*, v. 61, p. 466 (Aug. 23).

Strikes:

Dread of a strike. P. Roberts. *Outlook*, v. 83, p. 25 (May 5).

Five years of strikes and lockouts in Holland, Germany, and France. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 741 (Dec.).

France:

French labor riots. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 950 (Apr. 26).

General strike. *Independent*, v. 60, p. 578 (Mar. 8).

General strike as a political weapon. *Nation*, v. 81, p. 519 (Dec. 28).

Germany:

Insurances against strikes in Germany. *Review of Reviews*, v. 34, p. 109 (Jul.).

Strikes — GERMANY — Continued.

Textile workers in Thuringia. *Charities*, v. 15, p. 487 (Jan. 6).

I. Cotonieri italiani ed i recenti scioperi. C. Contoni. *Riforma Soc.* (Jun.).

Injustice of jurisdictional strife. *Charities*, v. 17, p. 103 (Oct. 6).

Liberty, law, and labor. F. H. Gaffney. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 285 (Sep.).

Manufacturers' point of view. J. T. Lincoln. *Atlantic Monthly*, v. 98, p. 289 (Sep.).

Russia:

Russian strike and anti-strike measures. *Outlook*, v. 81, p. 1050 (Dec. 30).

United States:

Decline of strikes. C. D. Wright. *World's Work*, v. 12, p. 7712 (Jul.).

Eight-hour agitation, strikes, and fights in Colorado. J. W. Mills. *Arena*, v. 36, p. 375 (Oct.).

Housesmiths and Post and McCord. *Outlook*, v. 81, p. 843 (Dec. 9).

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PUBLICATIONS OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

The following issues of the annual reports of this Department remain in print and will be forwarded when requested, upon receipt of the price set against each Part and bound volume.

Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor.

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1906. Part I. The Apprenticeship System (postage 5 c.); II. Trained and Supplemental Employees for Domestic Service (postage 5 c.); III. The Incorporation of Trade Unions (postage 5 c.); IV. Statistics of Manufactures: 1904-1905 (postage 5 c.); V. Labor Laws of Massachusetts (postage 5 c.).

Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures.

Publication begun in 1886, but all volumes previous to 1892 are now out of print. Each volume contains comparisons, for identical establishments, between two or more years as to Capital Devoted to Production, Goods Made and Work Done, Stock and Materials Used, Persons Employed, Wages Paid, Time in Operation, and Proportion of Business Done. The Industrial Chronology which forms a Part of each report up to and including the year 1902 presents an Industrial Chronology by Towns and Industries. Beginning with the year 1903, the Industrial Chronology is combined with that for Labor under the title of Labor and Industrial Chronology and forms a part of the Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor. Beginning with the year 1904, the Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures was discontinued as a separate volume and now forms a part of the Report on Labor.

The volumes now remaining in print are given below, the figures in parentheses indicating the amount of postage needed to secure them:

1892 (15 c.); **1893** (15 c.); **1894** (15 c.); **1895** (15 c.); **1896** (10 c.); **1897** (10 c.); **1898** (15 c.), contains also a historical report on the Textile Industries; **1899** (10 c.); **1900** (10 c.); **1902** (10 c.); **1903** (10 c.).

Special Reports.

A Manual of Distributive Co-operation — 1885 (postage 5 c.).

Reports of the Annual Convention of the National Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor Statistics in America — 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, and 1906 (postage 5 cents each).

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No. 29, January, 1904. Eight-hour Day—Licensing of Barbers—Early Closing and Half-holiday Laws of Australasia—Industrial Studies, Proprietors—Palaces for the People—Quarterly Record of Strikes.

No. 30, March, 1904. National Trades Association—Massachusetts-born Living in Other States—Industrial Betterments—A Partial Religious Canvass of Boston—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Child Labor—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Prices of Certain Articles of Food in Toronto, Canada, and Massachusetts—Industrial Agreements—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 31, May, 1904. City Labor in Massachusetts—Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending April 30, 1904—Average Retail Prices in 17 Cities—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Editorial, Rev. Jesse H. Jones—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Open and Closed Shop—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 32, July, 1904. Child Labor in the United States and Massachusetts—Net Profits of Labor and Capital—The Inheritance Tax—Absence after Pay Day—Pay of Navy Yard Workmen—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1904—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Eight-hour Workday—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 36, June, 1905. Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905—The Loom System—Weekly Day of Rest—Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works—The Census Enumerators of 1905—Average Retail Prices, October and April—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905—Current Comment

on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 40, March, 1906. The Taking of a Census—The True Basis of Political Representation—The Restriction of Immigration—Free Employment Offices—Trade Unions: United States and Foreign Countries—Wages Paid Employees in the Navy Yard and Private Establishments—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Immigration—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 42, July, 1906. Non-Collectable Indebtedness—Pawnbrokers' Pledges—Hours of Labor in Certain Occupations—Labor Legislation in 1906—Current Comment on Labor Questions: The Inheritance Tax—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

No. 43, September, 1906. Organization of Trade Schools—Textile Schools in the United States—Convention of Labor Bureaus—Maternity Aid—Stone-meal as a Fertilizer—Injunctions against Strikes and Lockouts—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Trade Union Directory for 1906.

No. 45, January, 1907. Income and Inheritance Taxes—Child Labor and the Census—Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts in 1850 and 1905—Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada—Convict Labor in Massachusetts—The President on Labor Matters—Trade Union Notes—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment: Old-age Pensions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906.







